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BADGERS



Fig. 1. Badger, *Taxidea taxus*

Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

Generally not practical.

Habitat Modification

Controlling rodent populations may make habitats less suitable for badgers.

Frightening

Bright lights.

Repellents

None are registered.

Trapping

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations).

There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

Shooting

Where permitted, shooting with a rifle, handgun, or shotgun is effective.

Identification

The badger (*Taxidea taxus*) is a stocky, medium-sized mammal with a broad head, a short, thick neck, short legs, and a short, bushy tail. Its front legs are stout and muscular, and its front claws are long. It is silver-gray, has long guard hairs, a black patch on each cheek, black feet, and a characteristic white stripe extending from its nose over the top of its head. The length of this stripe down the back varies. Badgers may weigh up to 30 pounds (13.5 kg), but average about 19 pounds (8.6 kg) for males and 14 pounds (6.3 kg) for females. Eyeshine at night is green.



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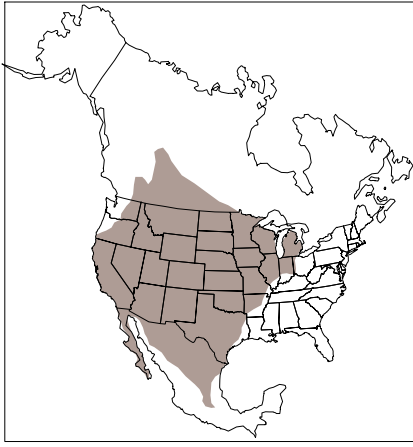


Fig. 2. Range of the badger in North America.

Range

The badger is widely distributed in the contiguous United States. Its range extends southward from the Great Lakes states to the Ohio Valley and westward through the Great Plains to the Pacific Coast, though not west of the Cascade mountain range in the Northwest (Fig. 2). Badgers are found at elevations of up to 12,000 feet (3,600 m).

Habitat

Badgers prefer open country with light to moderate cover, such as pastures and rangelands inhabited by burrowing rodents. They are seldom found in areas that have many trees.

Food Habits

Badgers are opportunists, preying on ground-nesting birds and their eggs, mammals, reptiles, amphibians, and insects. Common dietary items are ground squirrels, pocket gophers, prairie dogs, and other smaller rodents. Occasionally they eat vegetable matter. Metabolism studies indicate that an average badger must eat about two ground squirrels or pocket gophers daily to maintain its weight. Badgers may occasionally kill small lambs and young domestic turkeys, parts of which they often will bury.

General Biology, Reproduction, and Behavior

Badgers are members of the weasel family and have the musky odor characteristic of this family. They are especially adapted for burrowing, with strong front legs equipped with long, well-developed claws. Their digging capability is used to pursue and capture ground-dwelling prey. Typical burrows dug in pursuit of prey are shallow and about 1 foot (30 cm) in diameter. A female badger will dig a deeper burrow (5 to 30 feet long [1.5 to 9 m]) with an enlarged chamber 2 to 3 feet (0.6 to 0.9 m) below the surface in which to give birth. Dens usually have a single, often elliptical entrance, typically marked by a mound of soil in the front.

Badgers have a rather ferocious appearance when confronted, and often make short charges at an intruder. They may hiss, growl, or snarl when fighting or cornered. Their quick movements, loose hide, muscular body, and tendency to retreat quickly into a den provide protection from most predators. Larger predators such as mountain lions, bears, and wolves will kill adult badgers. Coyotes and eagles will take young badgers.

Badgers are active at night, remaining in dens during daylight hours, but are often seen at dawn or dusk. During winter they may remain inactive in their burrows for up to a month, although they are not true hibernators. Male badgers are solitary except during the mating season, and females are solitary except when mating or rearing young. Densities of badgers are reported to be about 1 per square mile ($0.4/\text{km}^2$) although densities as high as 5 to 15 badgers per square mile (1.9 to $5.8/\text{km}^2$) have been reported. An adult male's home range may be as large as 2.5 square miles (6.5 km^2); the home range of adult females is typically about half that size. Badgers may use as little as 10% of their range during the winter.

Badgers breed in summer and early fall, but have delayed implantation, with active gestation beginning around February. Some yearling females may breed, but yearling males do not. As many as 5 young, but usually 2 or 3, are born in early spring. Young nurse for 5 to 6 weeks, and they may remain with the female until midsummer. Most young disperse from their mother's range and may move up to 32 miles (52 km). Badgers may live up to 14 years in the wild; a badger in a zoo lived to be 15 1/2 years of age.

Damage and Damage Identification

Most damage caused by badgers results from their digging in pursuit of prey. Open burrows create a hazard to livestock and horseback riders. Badger diggings in crop fields may slow harvesting or cause damage to machinery. Digging can also damage earthen dams or dikes and irrigation canals, resulting in flooding and the loss of irrigation water. Diggings on the shoulders of roads can lead to erosion and the collapse of road surfaces. In late summer and fall, watch for signs of digging that indicate that young badgers have moved into the area.

Badgers will occasionally prey on livestock or poultry, gaining access to protected animals by digging under fences or through the floor of a poultry house. Tracks can indicate the presence of badgers, but to the novice, badger tracks may appear similar to coyote tracks (see **Coyotes**). Claw marks are farther from the toe pad in badger tracks, however, and the front tracks have a pigeon-toed appearance (Fig. 3).

Badgers usually consume all of a prairie dog except the head and the fur along the back. This characteristic probably holds true for much of their prey; however, signs of digging near the remains of prey are the best evidence of predation by a badger. Because badgers will kill black-footed ferrets, their presence is of concern in reintroduction programs for this endangered species.

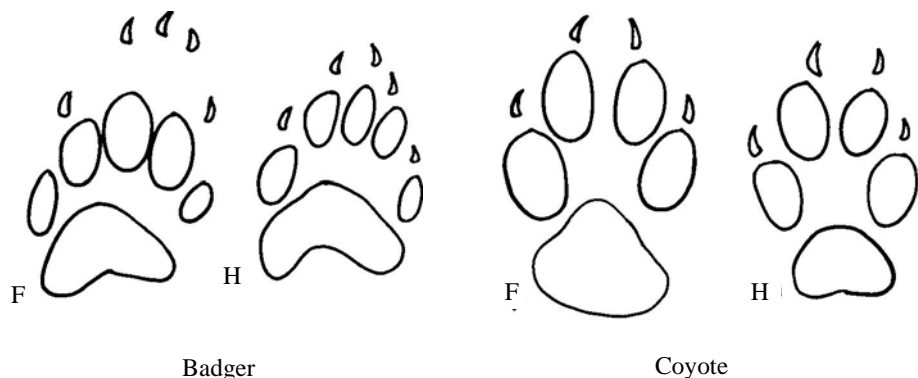


Fig. 3. Badger tracks compared to coyote tracks.

Legal Status

In California, badgers are designated as furbearing mammals. See California statutes and regulations regarding the take of furbearing and nongame mammals.

Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

Mesh fencing buried to a depth of 12 to 18 inches (30 to 46 cm) can exclude most badgers. The cost and effort to construct such fences, however, preclude their use for large areas.

Habitat Modification

Control of rodents, particularly burrowing rodents, offers the greatest potential for alleviating problems resulting from badger diggings. For example, controlling ground squirrels or pocket gophers in alfalfa fields will likely result in badgers hunting elsewhere.

Frightening

Badgers may be discouraged from a problem area by the use of bright lights at night. High-intensity lamps used to light up a farmyard may discourage badger predation on poultry.

Trapping

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations).

There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

Badgers can be removed by using live traps. Snares have been used with mixed success. Badgers often return to old diggings. A good bait for badgers is a dead chicken placed within a recently dug burrow. Fur trapping may reduce badger populations locally, but badger pelts are generally of little value and most badgers are caught incidentally.

Shooting

Badgers can be controlled by shooting. Incidental shooting has contributed to reducing their numbers in some areas.

Acknowledgments

This chapter is a revision of the chapter on badgers by Norman C. Johnson in the 1983 edition of *Prevention and Control of Wildlife Damage*. F. Robert Henderson and Steve Minta provided information included in this chapter.

Figures 1 and 2 from Schwartz and Schwartz (1981).

Figure 3 from Wade (1973).

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Editors

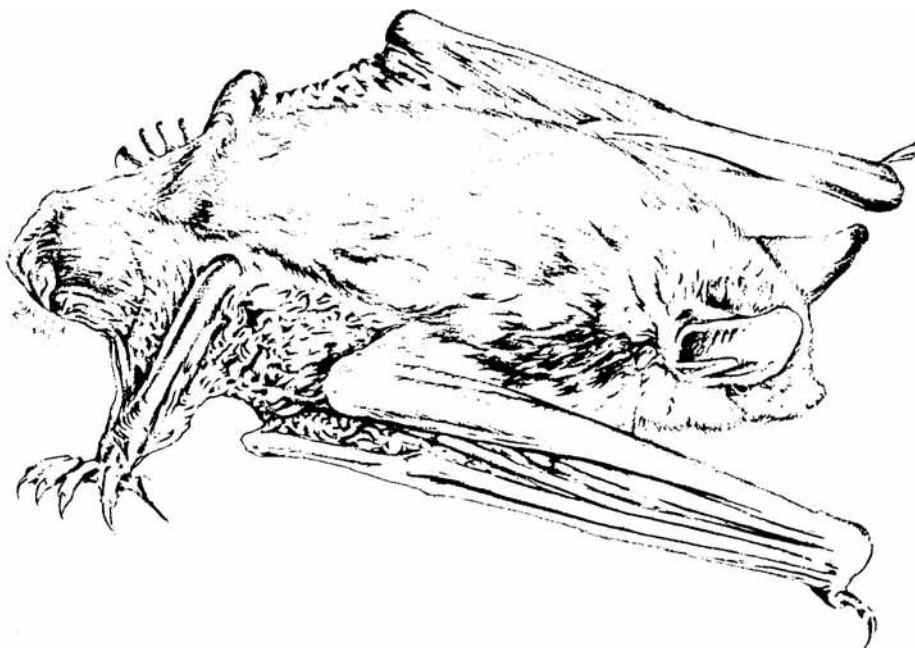
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BATS

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Fig. 1. Little brown bat, *Myotis lucifugus*



Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

Polypropylene netting checkvalves
simplify getting bats out.

Quality bat-proofing permanently
excludes bats.

Initiate control before young are born
or after they are able to fly.

Repellents

Naphthalene: limited efficacy.

Illumination.

Air drafts/ventilation.

Ultrasonic devices: not effective.

Sticky deterrents: limited efficacy.

Trapping

Available, but unnecessarily
complicated compared to exclusion
and bat-proofing.

Other Methods

Sanitation and cleanup.

Artificial roosts.

Removal of Occasional Bat Intruders

When no bite or contact has occurred,
help the bat escape (otherwise
submit it for rabies testing).

Conservation and Public Education

Information itself functions as a
management technique.



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Introduction

Conservation and Public Education

Despite their ecological value, bats are relentlessly and unjustifiably persecuted. Bats are often killed because they live near people who needlessly fear them. These actions emphasize the need to educate the public on the reasons for bat conservation and why it is important to use safe, nondestructive methods to alleviate conflicts between people and bats. General sources of information on bats include states' Cooperative Extension Services, universities, government environmental conservation and health departments, and Bat Conservation International (Austin, Texas). Except where control is necessary, bats should be appreciated from a distance — and not disturbed.

Identification and Range

Bats, the only mammals that truly fly, belong to the order Chiroptera. Their ability to fly, their secretiveness, and their nocturnal habits have contributed to bat folklore, superstition, and fear. They are worldwide in distribution and include about 900 species, second in number only to Rodentia (the rodents) among the mammals.

Among the 40 species of bats found north of Mexico, only a few cause problems for humans (note that vampire bats are not found in the United States and Canada). Bats congregating in groups are called colonial bats; those that live a lone existence are known as solitary bats.

The colonial species most often encountered in and around human buildings in the United States are the little brown bat, (*Myotis lucifugus*, Fig. 2), the big brown bat (*Eptesicus fuscus*, Fig. 3), the Mexican free-tailed bat (*Tadarida brasiliensis*, Fig. 4), the pallid bat (*Antrozous pallidus*), the Yuma myotis (*Myotis yumanensis*), and the evening bat (*Nycticeius humeralis*).

Solitary bats typically roost in tree foliage or under bark, but occasionally are found associated with buildings, some only as transients during migration.



Fig. 2. Little brown bat, *Myotis lucifugus*



Fig. 3. Big brown bat, *Eptesicus fuscus*



Fig. 4. Mexican free-tailed bat, *Tadarida brasiliensis*

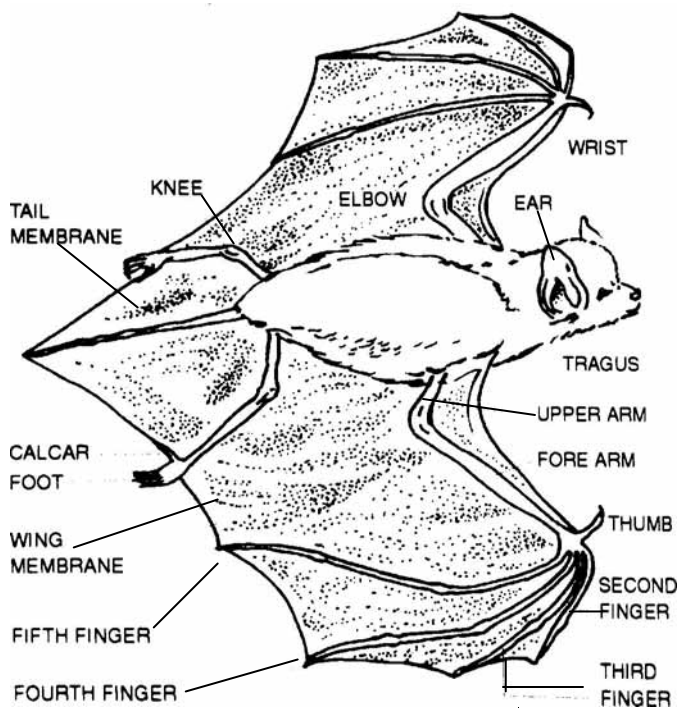


Fig. 5. Anatomy of a typical bat

These include Keen's bat (*Myotis keenii*), the red bat (*Lasiurus borealis*), the silver-haired bat (*Lasionycteris noctivagans*), and the hoary bat (*Lasiurus cinereus*). Excellent illustrations of all bats discussed herein can be found in Barbour and Davis (1979), Tuttle (1988), Geluso et al. (1987), and Harvey (1986).

Several species of bats have been included here, with significant inter-specific differences that need to be clarified if well-planned, comprehensive management strategies are to be developed. Any problems caused by bats are limited to species distribution; thus animal damage control personnel need not be concerned with every species.

Colonial and solitary bats have obvious differences that serve to separate the species into groups (refer to Fig. 5). Much of the descriptive material that follows is adapted from Barbour and Davis (1979).

Colonial Bats

Little brown bat (*Myotis lucifugus*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.34 to 1.61 inches (3.4 to 4.1 cm)
wingspan — 9.02 to 10.59 inches (22.9 to 26.9 cm)
ears — 0.55 to 0.63 inches (1.4 to 1.6 cm)
foot — approximately 0.39 inches (1.0 cm); long hairs on toes extend beyond claws.

Distribution (Fig. 6a)

Color

Pale tan through reddish brown to dark brown, depending on geographic location. The species is a rich dark brown in the eastern United States and most of the west coast. Fur is glossy and sleek.

Confusion may occur with a few other "house" bat species. In the East, it may be confused with Keen's bat (*M. keenii*), which has longer ears [0.69 to 0.75 inches (1.7 to 1.9 cm)] and a longer, more pointed tragus (the appendage at the base of the ear). In the West, it resembles the Yuma myotis (*M. yumanensis*), which has dull fur and is usually smaller. However, the Yuma myotis and little brown may be indistinguishable in some parts of the northwestern United States where they may hybridize.

Habits

This is one of the most common bats found in and near buildings, often located near a body of water where they forage for insect prey. Summer colonies are very gregarious, commonly roosting in dark, hot attics and associated roof spaces where maternity colonies may include hundreds to a few thousand individuals. Colonies may also form beneath shingles and siding, in tree hollows, beneath bridges, and in caves. Litter size is 1 in the Northeast; twins occasionally occur in some other areas. The roost is often shared with the big brown bat (*E. fuscus*) though the latter is less toler-

ant of high temperatures; *M. keenii* may also share the same site. Separate groups of males tend to be smaller and choose cooler roosts within attics, behind shutters, under tree bark, in rock crevices, and within caves.

In the winter, little brown bats in the eastern part of their range abandon buildings to hibernate in caves and mines. Such hibernacula may be near summer roosts or up to a few hundred miles (km) away. Little is known of the winter habits of *M. lucifugus* in the western United States.

The life span of little brown bats has been established to be as great as 31 years. The average life expectancy, however, is probably limited to only a few years.

Big brown bat (*Eptesicus fuscus*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.65 to 2.01 inches (4.2 to 5.1 cm)
wingspan — 12.80 to 13.78 inches (32.5 to 35.0 cm)
ears — with rounded tragus

Distribution (Fig. 6b)

Color

From reddish brown, copper colored, to a dark brown depending on geographic location. This is a large bat without distinctive markings.

Confusion may occur with the evening bat (*Nycticeius humeralis*) though the latter is much smaller.

Habits

This hardy, rather sedentary species appears to favor buildings for roosting. Summer maternity colonies may include a dozen or so and up to a few hundred individuals, roosting behind chimneys, in enclosed eaves, in hollow walls, attics, barns, and behind shutters and unused sliding doors. They also form colonies in rock crevices, beneath bridges, in hollow trees, and under loose bark. Litter size is 2 in the East to the Great Plains; from the Rockies westward 1 young is born.

E. fuscus frequently shares roosts with *M. lucifugus* in the East, and with *M. yumanensis*, *Taderida*, and *Antrozous* in the West. Males typically roost in smaller groups or alone during the summer.

The big brown bat is one of the most widely distributed of bats in the United States and is probably familiar to more people than any other species. This is partially due to its large, easy-to-observe size, but also to its ability to overwinter in buildings (attics, wall spaces, and basements). Its close proximity to humans, coupled with its tendency to move about when temperature shifts occur, often brings this bat into human living quarters and basements in summer and winter. Big browns also hibernate in caves, mines, storm sewers, burial vaults, and other underground harborage. While *E. fuscus* will apparently travel as far as 150 miles (241 km) to hibernacula, the winter quarters of the bulk of this species are largely unknown.

Big brown bats may live as long as 18 years.

Mexican free-tailed bat (*Tadarida brasiliensis*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.42 to 1.81 inches (3.6 to 4.6 cm)
wingspan — 11.42 to 12.80 inches (29.0 to 32.5 cm); long narrow wings
tail (interfemoral) membrane — does not enclose the lower one-third to one-half of the tail, hence the name free-tailed
foot — long, stiff hairs as long as the foot protrude from the toes.

Distribution (Fig. 6c)

Color

Dark brown or dark gray. Fur of some individuals may have been bleached to a pale brown due to ammonia fumes from urine and decomposing guano.

Confusion is not likely to occur with other species that commonly inhabit human buildings.

Habits

T. brasiliensis forms the largest colonies of any warm-blooded animal, establishing sizable colonies in buildings, particularly on the West Coast and in the Gulf states from Texas east. Hundreds to thousands may be found in buildings or under bridges. It is primarily a cave bat in Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas; buildings are used as temporary roosts during migrations. Litter size is 1.

Taderida often share roosts with other species. In the West, for example, they may be found in buildings with *A. pallidus*, *M. yumanensis*, and *E. fuscus*. Some males are always present in the large maternity colonies, but they tend to segregate in separate caves.

A few *Taderida* may overwinter in buildings as far north as South Carolina in the East and Oregon in the West. Most of this species migrate hundreds of miles to warmer climes (largely to Mexico) for the winter.

Pallid bat (*Antrozous pallidus*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.89 to 2.36 inches (4.8 to 6.0 cm)
wingspan — 14.17 to 15.35 inches (36.0 to 39.0 cm)
ears — large; widely separated and more than half as broad as long. The ears are nearly half as long as the combined length of the bat's head and body.
eyes — large

Distribution (Fig. 6d)

Color

Pale, upper parts are light yellow, the hairs tipped with brown or gray. Underparts are pale creamy, almost white. This large, light-colored bat is relatively easy to recognize.

Confusion with other species that commonly inhabit human buildings is not likely to occur.

Habits

Maternity colony size ranges from about 12 to 100 individuals. Roost sites include buildings, bridges, and rock crevices; less frequently, tree cavities, caves, and mines. Litter size is most commonly 2. The roost is frequently shared with *T. brasiliensis* and *E. fuscus* in the West. While groups of males tend to segregate during the nursery period (sometimes in the same building), other males are found within the maternity colony.

An interesting feature of pallid bats is that they fly close to the ground, may hover, and take most prey on the ground, not in flight. Prey includes crickets, grasshoppers, beetles, and scorpions. They will also forage among tree foliage.

Pallid bats are not known to make long migrations, though little is known of their winter habits.

Yuma myotis (*Myotis yumanensis*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.26 to 1.50 inches (3.2 to 3.8 cm)
wingspan — about 9.25 inches (23.5 cm)
ears — 0.55 to 0.59 inches (1.4 to 1.5 cm)
foot — 0.39 inches (1.0 cm)

Distribution (Fig. 6e)

Color

Light tan to dark brown; underside is whitish to buffy.

Confusion may occur in the West with *M. lucifugus*, though the latter tends to have longer, glossier fur, and is larger. In the Northwest, hybridization occurs with *M. lucifugus*, making the species indistinguishable.

Habits

Maternity colonies, up to several thousand individuals, form in the summer in attics, belfries, under bridges, and in caves and mines. Litter size is 1. Males typically segregate during the nursery period and roost as solitary individuals in buildings and other suitable harborage.

M. yumanensis is more closely associated with water than is any other North American bat species. Nearly all roosts have open water nearby. This species is not as tolerant as *M. lucifugus* of high roost temperatures and will move to cooler niches within a building when temperatures rise much above 100 F ° (37.8°C).

M. yumanensis abandons maternity colonies in the fall, but its winter habitat is not known.

Evening bat (*Nycticeius humeralis*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.30 to 1.54 inches (3.3 to 3.9 cm)
wingspan — 10.24 to 11.02 inches (26.0 to 28.0 cm)
ears — with short, curved, and rounded tragus

Confusion may occur with the big brown bat (*E. fuscus*), which can be readily distinguished by its larger size. It bears some resemblance to the somewhat smaller little brown bat (*M. lucifugus*) but can be identified by its characteristic blunt tragus.

Distribution (Fig. 6f)

Color

Medium brown with some variation to yellow-brown in subtropical Florida. No distinctive markings.

Habits

Summer maternity colonies in buildings may consist of hundreds of individuals. Litter size is usually 2. Colonies also form in tree cavities and under loose tree bark. In the Southeast, *T. brasiliensis* commonly inhabits the same building with *N. humeralis*. This is one of the most common bats in towns throughout the southern coastal states. Very little is known about this species, and virtually nothing is known of its winter habitat except that it almost never enters caves.

Solitary Bats

Keen's bat (*Myotis keenii*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.26 to 1.54 inches (3.2 to 3.9 cm)
wingspan — 8.98 to 10.16 inches (22.8 to 25.8 cm)
ears — 0.67 to 0.75 inches (1.7 to 1.9 cm); with a long, narrow, pointed tragus

Distribution (Fig. 6g)

Color

Brown, but not glossy; somewhat paler in the East.

Confusion may occur with *M.*

lucifugus, which has glossy fur, shorter ears, and does not have the long, pointed tragus.

Habits

Excluding small maternity colonies (up to 30 individuals are on record), *M. keenii* are generally found singly in the East. Roosting sites include: behind shutters, under wooden shingles, sheltered entryways of buildings, in roof spaces, in barns, and beneath tree bark. In the West, this bat is known as a solitary species, roosting in tree cavities and cliff crevices. Litter size is probably 1. The roost is sometimes shared with *M. lucifugus*. The sexes probably segregate during the nursery period. In winter, these bats hibernate in caves and mines.

Red Bat (*Lasiurus borealis*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.38 to 1.77 inches (3.5 to 4.5 cm)
wingspan — 11.42 to 13.07 inches (29.0 to 33.2 cm); long, pointed wings
ears — short rounded
tail membrane — heavily furred on upper surface, with a distinctive long tail.

Distribution (Fig. 6h)

Color

Bright orange to yellow-brown; usually with a distinctive white mark on the shoulders.

Confusion may occur with the hoary bat (*L. cinereus*), which is frosted-gray in appearance and larger.

Habits

Red bats live solitary lives, coming together only to mate and migrate. Few people are familiar with this species. They typically spend summer days hidden in the foliage of deciduous trees. The number of young ranges from 1 to 4, averaging 2.3.

These bats often chase insects that are attracted to lights, such as street lamps. It is this behavior that most likely brings them in close proximity to people.

L. borealis is well-adapted for surviving drastic temperature fluctuations; it does not hibernate in caves, but apparently in trees. Some migrate long distances. During migration, red bats have been known to land on high-rise buildings and on ships at sea.

Silver-haired bat (*Lasionycteris noctivagans*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.46 to 1.73 inches (3.7 to 4.4 cm)
wingspan — 10.63 to 12.20 inches (27.0 to 31.0 cm)
ears — short, rounded, hairless
tail membrane — upper surface is sparsely furred on the anterior one-half.

Distribution (Fig. 6i)

Color

Usually black with silver-tipped fur; some individuals with dark brown, yellowish-tipped fur.

Confusion sometimes occurs with the larger hoary bat (*Lasiurus cinereus*), which has patches of hair on the ears and wings, heavy fur on the entire upper surface of the tail membrane, and has a distinctive throat "collar."

Habits

The silver-haired bat roosts in a wide variety of harborages. A typical roost might be behind loose tree bark; other sites include tree hollows and bird nests. This species is solitary except when with young. Additionally, there are unconfirmed reports that it is sometimes colonial (Dalquest and Walton 1970) and

may roost in and on buildings. The litter size is 2. The sexes segregate through much of the summer range.

L. noctivagans hibernates in tree crevices, under loose bark, in buildings (including churches, skyscrapers, and wharf houses), hulls of ships, rock crevices, silica mines, and non-limestone caves. It also may migrate, during which time it is encountered in buildings (they favor open sheds, garages, and outbuildings rather than enclosed attics), in lumber piles, and on ships at sea.

Hoary bat (*Lasiurus cinereus*)

Recognition

forearm — 1.81 to 2.28 inches (4.6 to 5.8 cm)
wingspan — 14.96 to 16.14 inches (38.0 to 41.0 cm)
ears — relatively short, rounded, edged with black, and with fur
tail membrane — completely furred on upper surface

Distribution (Fig. 6j)

Color

Dark, but many hairs are tipped in white, giving it a frosted appearance. This bat also has a yellowish or orangish throat "collar."

Confusion may sometimes occur with the much smaller silver-haired bat (*Lasionycteris noctivagans*), which lacks the fur patches and markings on the ears, markings on the throat, and has a tail membrane that is only lightly furred on the upper surface.

Habits

Hoary bats generally spend summer days concealed in tree foliage (often in evergreens), rarely enter houses, and are not commonly encountered by people. *L. cinereus* at their day roosts are usually solitary except when with young. The litter size is 2. The sexes segregate through most of the summer range.

This is one of the largest bats in North America, a powerful flier, and an accomplished migrant. Records indicate that some *L. cinereus* may hibernate in northern parts of their range.

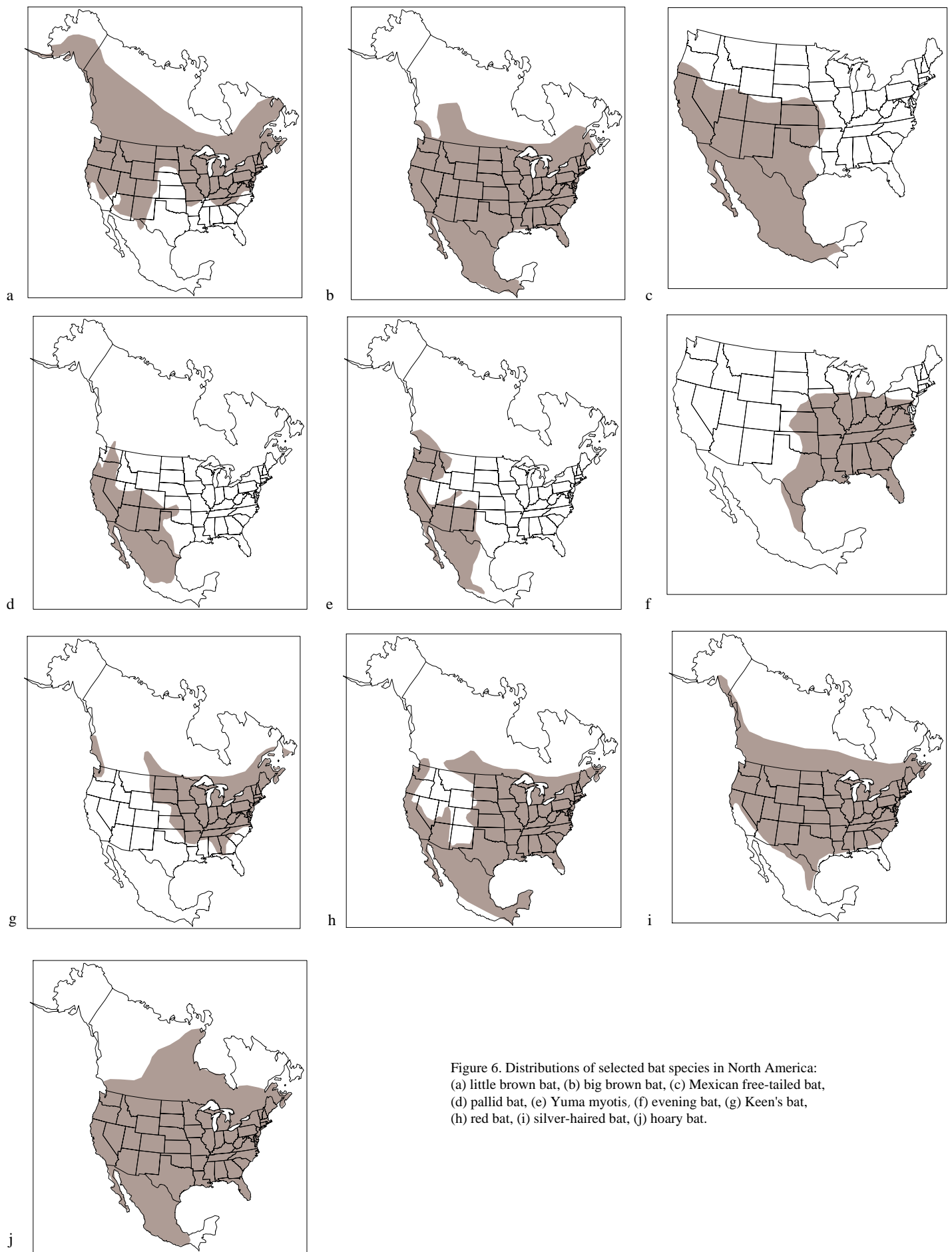


Figure 6. Distributions of selected bat species in North America: (a) little brown bat, (b) big brown bat, (c) Mexican free-tailed bat, (d) pallid bat, (e) Yuma myotis, (f) evening bat, (g) Keen's bat, (h) red bat, (i) silver-haired bat, (j) hoary bat.

Food Habits

Bats in North America are virtually all insectivorous, feeding on a variety of flying insects (exceptions among house bats were noted previously). Many of the insects are harmful to humans. While there must be some limitations based on such factors as bats' body size, flight capabilities, and jaw opening, insectivorous bats apparently consume a wide range of prey (Barbour and Davis 1979). The little brown bat's diet includes mayflies, midges, mosquitoes, caddis flies, moths, and beetles. It can consume insects equal to one-third of its body weight in 1/2 hour of foraging. The big brown bat may fill its stomach in about 1 hour (roughly 0.1 ounce per hour [2.7 g/hr]) with prey including beetles, moths, flying ants, true bugs, mayflies, caddis flies, and other insects. The nightly consumption of insects by a colony of bats can be extremely large.

General Biology, Reproduction, and Behavior

Most North American bats emit high frequency sounds (ultrasound) inaudible to humans and similar to sonar, in order to avoid obstacles, locate and capture insect prey, and to communicate. Bats also emit audible sounds that may be used for communication between them.

Bats generally mate in the fall and winter, but the female retains the sperm in the uterus until spring, when ovulation and fertilization take place. Pregnant females may congregate in maternity colonies in buildings, behind chimneys, beneath bridges, in tree hollows, caves, mines, or other dark retreats. No nests are built. Births typically occur from May through July. Young bats grow rapidly and are able to fly within 3 weeks. Weaning occurs in July and August, after which the nursery colonies disperse.

Bats prepare for winter around the time of the first frost. Some species

migrate relatively short distances, whereas certain populations of the Mexican free-tailed bat may migrate up to 1,000 miles (1,600 km). Bats in the northern United States and Canada may hibernate from September through May. Hibernation for the same species in the southern part of their range may be shorter or even sporadic. Some may fly during warm winter spells (as big brown bats may in the northeastern part of the United States). Bats often live more than 10 years.

In response to a variety of human activities, direct and indirect, several bat species in the United States have declined in number during the past few decades. Chemical pesticides (particularly the use of persistent and bioaccumulating organic pesticides) have decreased the insect supply, and contaminated insects ingested by bats have reduced bat populations. Many bats die when people disturb summer maternity roosts and winter hibernacula. Vandals and other irresponsible individuals may deliberately kill bats in caves and other roosts. Even the activities of speleologists or biologists may unintentionally disturb hibernating bats, which depletes fat reserves needed for hibernation.

Modification and destruction of roost sites has also decreased bat numbers. Sealing and flooding of mineshafts and caves and general quarrying operations may inadvertently ruin bat hibernacula. Forestry practices have reduced the number of hollow trees available. Some of the elimination of natural bat habitat may contribute to bats roosting in buildings.

Damage and Damage Identification

Bat Presence

Bats often fly about swimming pools, from which they drink or catch insects. White light (with an ultraviolet component), commonly used for porch lights, building illumination, street and parking-lot lights, may attract flying insects, which in turn attract bats. Unfortunately, the mere presence of a bat outdoors is sometimes beyond the tolerance of some uninformed people. Information is a good remedy for such situations.

Bats commonly enter buildings through openings associated with the roof edge and valleys, eaves, apex of the gable, chimney, attic or roof vent, dormers, and siding (see Fig. 7). Other

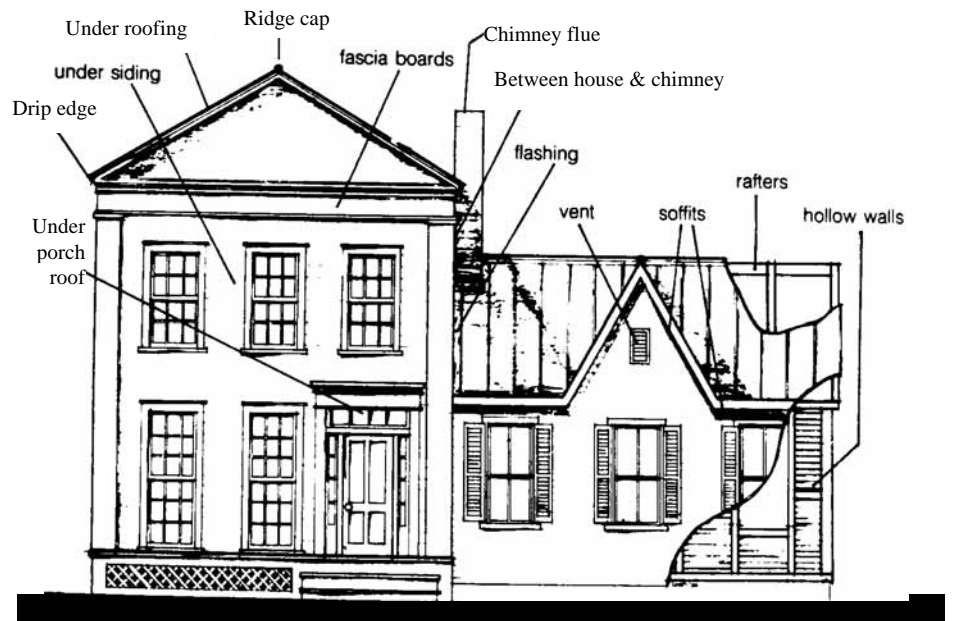


Fig. 7. Common points of entry and roosting sites of house bats.

openings may be found under loose-fitting doors, around windows, gaps around various conduits (wiring, plumbing, air conditioning) that pass through walls, and through utility vents.

Bats are able to squeeze through narrow slits and cracks. For purposes of bat management, one should pay attention to any gap of approximately 1/4 x 1 1/2 inches (0.6 x 3.8 cm) or a hole 5/8 x 7/8 inch (1.6 x 2.2 cm). Such openings must be considered potential entries for at least the smaller species, such as the little brown bat. The smaller species require an opening no wider than 3/8 inch (0.95 cm), that is, a hole the diameter of a US 10-cent coin (Greenhall 1982). Openings of these dimensions are not uncommon in older wood frame structures where boards have shrunk, warped, or otherwise become loosened.

The discovery of one or two bats in a house is a frequent problem. In the Northeast, big brown bats probably account for most sudden appearances (see Figs. 3 and 8). Common in urban areas, they often enter homes through open windows or unscreened fireplaces. If unused chimneys are selected for summer roosts, bats may fall or crawl through the open damper into the house. Sometimes bats may appear in a room, then disappear by crawling under a door to another room, hallway, or closet. They may also disappear behind curtains, wall hangings, bookcases, under beds, into waste baskets, and so forth. Locating and removing individual bats from living quarters can be laborious but is important. If all else fails, wait until dusk when the bat may appear once again as it attempts to find an exit. Since big brown bats may hibernate in the cooler recesses of heated buildings, they may suddenly appear (flying indoors or outdoors) in midwinter during a warm spell or a cold snap as they move about to adjust to the temperature shift.

Roosting Sites

Bats use roosting niches that are indoors (human dwellings, outbuildings, livestock quarters, warehouses),

semi-enclosed (loading docks, entrance foyers), partially sheltered (porches, carports, pavilions, highway underpasses, bridges), and open structural areas (window shutters, signs). Once there, active bats in and on buildings can have several economic and aesthetic effects, often intertwined with public health issues (Frantz, 1988). Unusual roosting areas include wells, sewers, and graveyard crypts. Before considering control measures, verify that bats are actually the cause of the problem.

Rub Marks

Surface areas on walls, under loose woodwork, between bricks and around other bat entryways often have a smooth, polished appearance. The stained area is slightly sticky, may contain a few bat hairs, and is yellow-brown to blackish brown in color. The smooth gloss of these rub marks is due to oils from fur and other bodily secretions mixed with dust, deposited there as many animals pass repeatedly for a long period over the same surface. Openings marked in this way have been used heavily by bats.

Noise

Disturbing sounds may be heard from vocalizations and grooming, scratching, crawling, or climbing in attics, under eaves, behind walls, and between floors. Bats become particularly noisy on hot days in attics, before leaving the roost at dusk, and upon returning at dawn. Note that rustling sounds in chimneys may be caused by birds or raccoons and scratching and thumping sounds in attics and behind walls may indicate rats, mice, or squirrels.

Guano and Urine

Fecal pellets indicate the presence of animals and are found on attic floors, in wall recesses, and outside the house at its base. Fecal pellets along and inside walls may indicate the presence of mice, rats, or even roaches. Since most house bats north of Mexico are insectivorous, their droppings are easily distinguished from those of small rodents. Bat droppings tend to

be segmented, elongated, and friable. When crushed, they become powdery and reveal shiny bits of undigested insect remains. In contrast, mice and rat droppings tend to taper, are unsegmented, are harder and more fibrous, and do not become powdery when crushed (unless extremely aged).

The droppings of some birds and lizards may occasionally be found along with those of bats. However, bat droppings never contain the white chalky material characteristic of the feces of these other animals.

Bat excrement produces an unpleasant odor as it decomposes in attics, wall spaces, and other voids. The pungent, musty, acrid odor can often be detected from outside a building containing a large or long-term colony. Similar odor problems occur when animals die in inaccessible locations. The odor also attracts arthropods which may later invade other areas of a building.

Bat guano may provide a growth medium for microorganisms, some of which are pathogenic (histoplasmosis, for example) to humans. Guano accumulations may fill spaces between walls, floors, and ceilings. It may create a safety hazard on floors, steps, and ladders, and may even collapse ceilings. Accumulations also result in the staining of ceilings, soffits, and siding, producing unsightly and unsanitary conditions.

Bats also urinate and defecate in flight, causing multiple spotting and staining on sides of buildings, windows, patio furniture, automobiles, and other objects at and near entry/exit holes or beneath roosts. Bat excrement may also contaminate stored food, commercial products, and work surfaces.

Bat urine readily crystallizes at room temperature. In warm conditions under roofs exposed to sun and on chimney walls, the urine evaporates so quickly that it crystallizes in great accumulations. Boards and beams saturated with urine acquire a whitish powderlike coating. With large numbers of bats, thick and hard stalactites and stalagmites of crystallized bat urine are occasionally formed.

Although the fresh urine of a single bat is relatively odorless, that of any moderate-sized colony is obvious, and the odor increases during damp weather. Over a long period of time urine may cause mild wood deterioration (Frantz and Trimarchi 1984). As the urine saturates the surfaces of dry wood beams and crystallizes, the wood fibers expand and separate. These fibers then are torn loose by the bats crawling over such surfaces, resulting in wood fibers being mixed with guano accumulations underneath.

The close proximity of bat roosts to human living quarters can result in excreta, animal dander, fragments of arthropods, and various microorganisms entering air ducts as well as falling onto the unfortunate residents below. Such contaminants can result in airborne particles of public health significance (Frantz 1988).

Ectoparasites and other Arthropods

Several arthropods (fungivores, detritivores, predators, and bat ectoparasites) are often associated with colonies of bats in buildings. Their diversity depends on the number of bats, age and quantity of excreta deposits, and season. Arthropods such as dermestid beetles (*Attagenus megatoma*) contribute to the decomposition of guano and insect remnants, but may also become a pest of stored goods and/or a nuisance within the living quarters. Cockroaches (for example, *Blatta orientalis*) attracted to guano may invade other parts of a building. Bat bugs (*Cimex* spp.) are sometimes found crawling on the surface of beams or around holes leading to secluded recesses used by bats. Bat ectoparasites (ticks, mites, fleas, and bugs) rarely attack humans or pets and quickly die in the absence of bats. Ectoparasites may become a nuisance, however, following exclusion of large numbers of bats from a well-established roost site. Area fumigation with a total release pyrethrum-based aerosol may be an appropriate solution for arthropod knockdown within an enclosed space, but only after bats have departed. For long-term arthropod control, lightly dust appro-

priate surfaces (affected attic beams, soffits) with boric acid powder or diatomaceous earth; carefully read all product labels before using any pesticide. Note that neither rabies nor Lyme disease is transmitted by any arthropods associated with bats.

Public Health Issues

Rabies—General Epidemiology.

Bats are distinct from most vertebrate pests that inhabit human dwellings because of the potential for transmitting rabies — a viral infection of mammals that is usually transmitted via the bite of an infected animal. Rabies does not respond to antibiotic therapy and is nearly always fatal once symptoms occur. However, because of the long incubation period (from 2 weeks to many months), prompt vaccination following exposure can prevent the disease in humans. Dogs, cats, and livestock also can be protected by periodic vaccinations.

Bats are not asymptomatic carriers of rabies. After an incubation period of 2 weeks to 6 months, they become ill with the disease for as long as 10 days. During this latter period, a rabid bat's behavior is generally not normal—it may be found active during the daytime or on the ground incapable of flying. Most human exposures are the

result of accidental or careless handling of grounded bats. Even less frequently, bats in this stage of illness may be involved in unprovoked attacks on people or pets (Brass, pers. commun; Trimarchi et al. 1979). It is during this stage that the rabid bat is capable of transmitting the disease by biting another mammal. As the disease progresses the bat becomes increasingly paralyzed and dies as a result of the infection. The virus in the carcass is reported to remain infectious until decomposition is well advanced.

Significance. Rabies is the most important public health hazard associated with bats. Infection with rabies has been confirmed in all 40 North American species of bats that have been adequately sampled in all of the contiguous United States and in most provinces of Canada. Figure 8 shows the frequency of bat species submitted for rabies testing in New York State over the last 12 years. While not a nationwide measure of human encounters with bats, Figure 8 illustrates that bat species are not encountered equally. Note that bats submitted for testing are often ill and/or easily captured. The numbers and species encountered will vary with the region of the country; data are generally available from local and state health authorities.

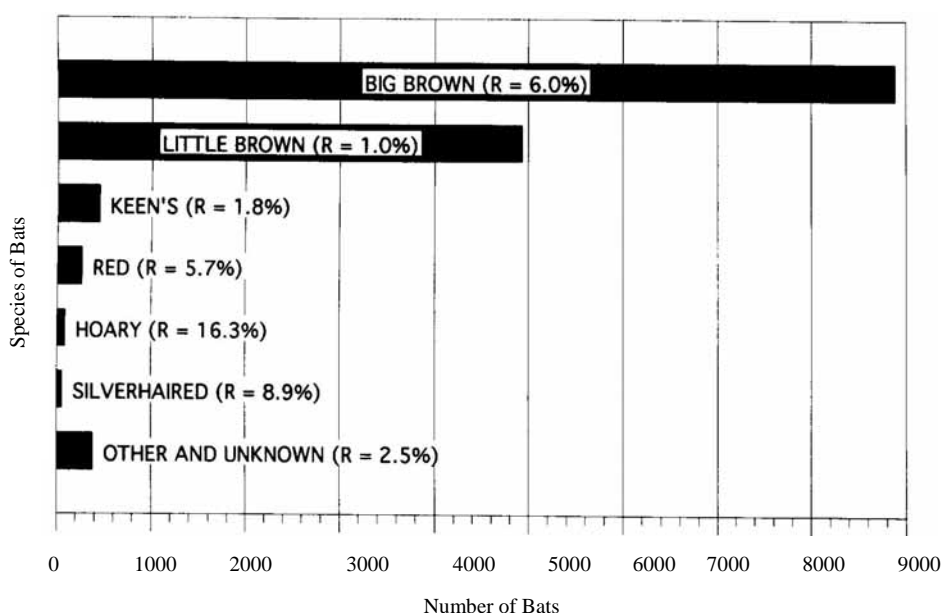


Fig. 8. Profile of bat species submitted to the New York State Rabies Laboratory, 1981-1992.

Random sampling of bats (healthy and ill) indicates an overall infection rate of less than 1%. Finding a rabid bat in a colony does not imply that the remaining animals are rabid. In fact, the probability of immediately finding more than one additional infected bat in that colony is small.

Bats rank third (behind raccoons and skunks) in incidence of wildlife rabies in the United States (Krebs et al. 1992). In the last 20 years, however, there have been more human rabies cases of bat origin in the United States than of any other wildlife group. Furthermore, the disease in bats is more widely distributed (in all 48 contiguous states in 1989) than in any other species. In Canada, bats also rank third (behind foxes and skunks) in the incidence of wildlife rabies. Therefore, every bat bite or contact must be considered a potential exposure to rabies. While aerosol transmission of the rabies virus from bats in caves to humans and some other mammals has been reported, this is not a likely route of infection for humans entering bat roosts in buildings in temperate North America. Note that vampire bats are not a threat north of Mexico.

Histoplasmosis—General Epidemi-

ology. Histoplasmosis is a very common lung disease of worldwide distribution caused by a microscopic fungus, *Histoplasma capsulatum*. *Histoplasma* exists in nature as a saprophytic mold that grows in soil with high nitrogen content, generally associated with the guano and debris of birds (particularly starlings, *Sturnus vulgaris*, and chickens) and bats. Wind is probably the main agent of dispersal, but the fungus can survive and be transmitted from one site to another in the intestinal contents of bats, and also in the dermal appendages of both bats and birds. The disease can be acquired by the casual inhalation of windblown spores, but infections are more likely to result from visits to point sources of growth of the fungus. Relative to bats, such sources include bat roosts in caves, barns, attics, and belfries, and soil enriched with bat guano.

Numerous wild and domestic animals are susceptible to histoplasmosis, but bats (and perhaps the armadillo) are the only important animal vectors. Unlike bats, birds do not appear to become infected with the fungus. Both the presence of guano and particular environmental conditions are necessary for *H. capsulatum* to proliferate. In avian habitats, the organism apparently grows best where the guano is in large deposits, rotting and mixed with soil rather than in nests or in fresh deposits. Specific requirements regarding bats have not been described, though bat roosts with long-term infestation are often mentioned in the literature.

While histoplasmosis in the United States is particularly endemic to the Ohio-Mississippi Valley region (which is also an area with the greatest starling concentration) and areas along the Appalachian Mountains, it is also found in the lake and river valleys of other states. Outside areas with "appropriate" environmental conditions, there also occur scattered foci with high infection rates usually associated with caves inhabited by bats or birds.

Significance. When soil or guano containing *H. capsulatum* is physically disturbed, the spores become airborne. Persons at particular risk of histoplasmosis of bat origin include spelunkers, bat biologists, pest control technicians, people who clean out or work in areas where bats have habitually roosted, and people in contact with guano-enriched soil — such as around the foundation of a building where guano has sifted down through the walls.

Infection occurs upon inhalation of spores and can result in a variety of clinical manifestations; severity partially depends on the quantity of spores inhaled. The infection may remain localized in the lungs where it may resolve uneventfully; this is the case for about 95% of the 500,000 infections occurring annually in the United States. Such infections are identified only by the presence of a positive histoplasmin skin test and/or calcified

lesions on routine radiographs. Other individuals may have chronic or progressive lung disease requiring treatment. Less severe forms of these infections may be accompanied by fever, cough, and generalized symptoms similar to a prolonged influenza. Resolution of the disease confers a degree of immunity to reinfection. In addition, resolution confers varying degrees of hypersensitivity to *H. capsulatum*; as a consequence, massive reinfection in highly sensitized lungs may result in a fatal acute allergic reaction.

In a small percentage of chronic histoplasmosis cases, the fungus disseminates to involve multiple organ systems and may be fatal. This form is usually seen in young children (1 year or older) and in immunocompromised adults. In recent years, systemic infections have been increasing in frequency globally as an opportunistic infection of AIDS patients.

Legal Status

The California Fish and Game Code designates bats as nongame mammals with eleven species also designated Species of Special Concern. Please refer to Appendix A for a thorough listing of species involved. See California statutes and regulations regarding the take of furbearing and nongame mammals. For more information on bats, please refer to appendices E and F.

Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Premanagement Considerations

Bat Watch for Infestation Confirmation. To confirm that bats are actually roosting in or on a building, look for bats flying in and out of a site and/or for signs of infestation. A bat watch can be conducted by two people (more may be necessary to observe large or complex sites) posted at opposite corners of a structure. An evening watch begins about 30 minutes before dark and a morning watch begins about 1 hour before dawn. Observations should continue for approximately 1 hour.

Such observations can indicate exit/entry points and the number of bats. With practice, distinguishing some bat species may also be possible. For example, compared to the big brown bat, the little brown bat is noticeably smaller in size, and its flight has more rapid wing beats, and more rapid turning and darting.

It may be necessary to watch for more than one night to compensate for weather conditions, bats' sensitivity to observers, noisy or inexperienced observers, and improper use of light. Observations can be enhanced with a standard flashlight, but be certain to keep the bright part of the beam as far as possible away from the exit hole being observed. Bright light will increase bats' reluctance to exit and may result in an incomplete exit of the colony. A valuable observation aid is a powerful, rechargeable flashlight equipped with a plastic, red pop-off filter (similar to the Kodak Wratten 89B). Also, an electric headlamp, supplied with rechargeable batteries and fitted to a climbing or spelunking helmet, allows hands-off illumination outdoors as well as indoors when exploring roost locations. Bats are sensitive to light intensity and can visually discriminate shapes and patterns in extremely low light situations. They can only see in black and white; hence, the low-contrast illumination and soft shadows produced by red light has little effect on bats.

Locating the Roost(s). It is not always possible or convenient to conduct a bat watch. Thus, a detailed inspection inside the building for bats or bat sign may be necessary to find specific roosts. Daytime is best, especially during the warmer part of the day. Bats roost in the most varied kinds of buildings and in every part from cellar to attic. Some types of buildings appear preferable (older houses, churches, barns, proximity to water) as do certain roost locations therein, especially areas with little disturbance, low illumination, little air circulation, and high temperatures. Often it is easy to locate bats, especially in warm weather in attics or lofts, where they may hang in clusters or side-by-side from the sloping roof lath, beams, and so forth. However, bats have the ability to find crevices and cavities, and if disturbed may rapidly disappear into the angles between converging beams, behind such beams or wallboards, into mortise holes on the underside of beams, and into the multilayered wall and roof fabrications. If bats cannot be openly observed, usually there are various interior and exterior signs of their presence. Often there are multiple roost sites within or on a single building.

Problem Assessment. Once it has been confirmed that bats are present, one must determine if there is damage, if there is a health risk, and if some intervention is warranted. There are circumstances in which "no action" is the correct action because of the beneficial role of bats. In cases where there is risk of contact, damage from excreta accumulations, stains, and so on, intervention may be necessary.

Timing. With the exception of disease treatment and removal of the occasional bat intruder, timing becomes an important planning consideration. Management procedures must not complicate an already existing problem and should emphasize bat conservation. Therefore, all interventions should be initiated before the young are born or after they are weaned and able to fly. Thus, the annual opportunity extends from about mid-August to mid-May for much of North

America. Treatments might otherwise result in the unnecessary death of animals (especially young unable to fly) trapped inside, offensive odors, and attraction of arthropod scavengers.

Disease Considerations

Rabies — Preventive Measures. It should be noted that newspapers, television, and other mass media sometimes misrepresent the role of rabid bats as a risk to humans. However, the unfortunate recent (1983 to 1993) deaths of a 22-year-old man in Texas, a 30-year-old bat scientist in Finland, a university student in British Columbia, a 5-year-old girl in Michigan, a man in Arkansas, an 11-year-old girl in New York, and a woman in Georgia amply underscore the need to pay prompt attention to bat bites and other exposures.

Many rabies exposures could be avoided if people simply refrained from handling bats. Adults and children should be strongly cautioned never to touch bats with bare hands. All necessary measures should be taken to ensure that bats cannot enter living quarters in houses and apartments. Pet cats and dogs should be kept up-to-date in rabies vaccinations. This is also true for pets confined indoors, because contact with bats frequently occurs indoors. Valuable livestock also should be vaccinated if kept in buildings harboring bats or if in a rabies outbreak area (NASPHV 1993). While transmission of rabies from bats to terrestrial mammals apparently is not common, such incidents have been reported (Reid-Sanden et al. 1990, Trimarchi 1987). Dogs, cats, and livestock that have been exposed to a rabid or suspected-rabid animal, but are not currently vaccinated, must be either quarantined or destroyed.

Lastly, pest control technicians, nuisance wildlife control personnel, wildlife biologists, and other individuals at particular risk of contact with rabid bats (or other wildlife) should receive a rabies pre-exposure vaccination. This effective prophylaxis involves only three injections of rabies vaccine, which are administered in the arm during a month's time.

Rabies — Treatment for Exposure.

If a person is bitten or scratched by a bat, or there is any suspicion that bat saliva or nervous tissue has contaminated an open wound or mucous membrane, wash the affected area thoroughly with soap and water, capture the bat without damaging the head, and seek immediate medical attention. The incident should be reported promptly to local health authorities in order to arrange rabies testing of the bat.

If the bat is captured and immediate transportation to the testing laboratory is possible, and if immediate testing can be arranged, postexposure treatment may be delayed several hours until the test results are known. Postexposure prophylaxis must be administered immediately, however, if the bat cannot be captured, if prompt transportation to the laboratory is not possible, if the specimen is not suitable for reliable diagnosis, or if the test results prove positive for rabies.

The prophylaxis has little resemblance to that of many years ago. Today, it consists of one dose of rabies immune globulin (human origin) and one dose of rabies vaccine (human diploid cell) administered preferably on the day of exposure, followed by additional single doses of rabies vaccine on days 3, 7, 14, and 28 following the initial injection. This treatment is normally safe, relatively painless, and very effective.

Histoplasmosis — Preventive Measures.

Histoplasmosis can most easily be prevented by avoiding areas that harbor *H. capsulatum*. Since this is not practical for individuals who must work in and around active/inactive bat roosting sites, other measures can be recommended to reduce the risk of infection during cleaning, field study, demolition, construction, and other activities.

Persons working in areas known or suspected to be contaminated with *H. capsulatum* should always wear protective masks capable of filtering out particles as small as 2 microns in diameter or use a self-contained breathing apparatus. In areas known to be contami-

nated, wear protective clothing and gloves that can be removed at the site and placed in a plastic bag for later decontamination via formalin and washing. Also, clean footwear before leaving the site to prevent spore dissemination in cars, the office, at home, and elsewhere.

Guano deposits and guano-enriched soils should not be unnecessarily disturbed. Dampening with water or scheduling outdoor work at a time when the ground is relatively wet will minimize airborne dust. Chemically decontaminate known infective foci with a spray of 3% formalin (see CDC 1977). To protect the environment, decontamination must be conducted in accordance with state and local regulations. Chemical decontamination of an "active" bat roost should be conducted only after the bats have been excluded or after bats have departed for hibernation.

Histoplasmosis — Treatment.

Most infections in normally healthy individuals are benign and self-limiting and do not require specific therapy (George and Penn 1986; Rippon 1988). Treatment with an antifungal agent may be prescribed in more severe cases; amphotericin B and/or oral imidazole ketoconazole are typically recommended depending on the specific nature of the infection.

Removal of Occasional Bat Intruders

A bat that has blundered into the living quarters of a house will usually find its way out by detecting air movement. When no bite or contact with people or pets has occurred, the simplest solution for "removing" the bat is to try to confine it to one room, then open windows and doors leading outdoors and allow it to escape. If the bat is present at night, the lights should be dimmed to allow the animal to find open doors and windows; some light is necessary if an observer is to insure that the bat finds its way out. If bright lights are kept on, the bat may become confused and may seek refuge behind shelving, curtains, hanging pictures, or under furniture.

Healthy bats normally will not attack people even when chased. Chasing a flying bat with a folded newspaper, tennis racket, or stick will cause the bat to take evasive action, and a bat's flight reversal to avoid a wall is often misinterpreted as an attack. These flailings, often futile, will cause a bat to seek safety wherever possible, making escape more difficult for the bat and more frustrating for the human.

If the bat has difficulty escaping, it can be captured in a hand net (for example, an insect net [Fig. 9]). Otherwise,



Fig. 9. Using an insect net to remove a bat from a building.

wait for it to come to rest, quickly cover it with a coffee can or similar container, and slide a piece of cardboard or magazine under the can to trap the bat inside (NYSDH 1990). Take the captured bat outdoors and release it away from populated areas, preferably after dark. Note that reasonably thick work gloves should be worn at all times when trying to capture a bat. Also, if a bite or physical contact occurs, capture the bat without damaging its head and immediately contact a physician (see previous section regarding rabies treatment). Management of problems involving bat colonies require more complicated procedures and a greater time commitment.

Exclusion

Preventive Aspects. The most satisfactory and permanent method of managing nuisance bats is to exclude them from buildings. Locate bats and their points of exit/entry through bat watches or other inspection methods. This is a tedious process to locate all openings in use, and bats may switch to alternate ones when normal routes become unavailable. Thus, consider "potential" as well as "active" points of access.

Often it is apparent where bats might gain entrance even when such openings are not directly observable. By standing in various locations of a darkened attic during daylight hours, one often can find leaks of light at the extreme parts of eaves, in layers of subroofing, and below chimney flashings. Seal all gaps of 1/4 x 1 1/2 inches (0.6 x 3.8 cm) and openings 5/8 x 7/8 inch (1.6 x 2.2 cm) or greater.

Bats will also use some of the same obscure holes in buildings through which heat (or cooled air) is lost; thus, bat-proofing often conserves energy. Simple, homemade devices can be used to locate air leaks. Bathroom tissue or very thin plastic film bags can be taped to a clothes hanger. When placed in front of an area with an air leak (for example, around window frames and sashes where caulking or weatherstripping are needed), the tis-

sue or plastic will wave and flutter from air movements (Fig. 10). Indoor air leaks can be found easily by the use of an air flow indicator (Fig. 11). Small-volume smoke generators can be used to locate openings in the floor, ceiling, attic, and basement. Obscure openings also may be located from outside the house by activating smoke candles or smoke bombs (as within an attic), which will produce easily observed dense smoke. Be careful of any fire hazards.

The easiest time to seal bats out of buildings in northern latitudes is during the cooler part of the year when colonies are not resident. During this period, many homeowners need to be reminded that bats, and bat problems, return each summer. Basic carpentry, masonry, and tinsmith skills are valuable in bat exclusion and other pestproofing interventions.

Devices and Methods. Exclusion becomes "denial of reentry" once the bats have returned to establish maternity colonies (and before the young are born), usually from April through mid-May in the Northeast. Denial of reentry is also appropriate anytime after mid-August when young are capable of flying, as long as bats continue to utilize the roost.



Fig. 10. Using a clothes hanger/plastic film combination to detect air leaks.

The traditional way to exclude bats from an occupied roost involves five basic steps: (1) identify and close all indoor openings through which bats might gain access to human living quarters; (2) close most confirmed and all unused potential exterior exits, leaving only a few major openings (it's best to complete this within 1 to 2 days); (3) at night shortly after the bats



Fig. 11. Smoke from the Sensidyne Air Indicator makes it possible to visually determine the directional pattern of air currents.

have departed to feed, temporarily close the few remaining, major exits; (4) check the roost for presence of bats and, if any remain, unplug the temporarily closed exits early the next evening to allow the bats to escape, then temporarily replug the exits (it may be necessary to repeat this step more than once); and (5) when the bats are all out, permanently seal the holes (Frantz and Trimarchi 1984, Greenhall 1982).

Patience and timing are very important in this process. Much of this work can be done during daylight hours except steps 3 and 4, which require climbing on ladders and roofs at night, sometimes with bats flying nearby. The danger of such work is obvious and discouraging.

Some of these difficulties have been overcome by use of the Constantine one-way valvelike device which is installed in the last exit(s) during the day, and permits bats to leave after dark but prevents their reentry (Constantine 1982). Eventually the valve should be removed and the hole(s) sealed. Another device, the EX-100 Hanks Bat Excluder, consists of a piece of nylon window screening, a wooden plate with a hole in the middle to which is attached a one-way plastic flappervalue, and a rigid plastic mesh cone (Anon. 1983). The screening, to which the wooden plate is attached, is used to cover an opening that bats use to exit a building. Both devices are designed to be used on the last few exit points. Installation instructions are available, and properly applied they will undoubtedly exclude bats from relatively small, discrete openings.

The devices of Constantine and Hanks involve a one-way, self-closing valve feature and can be readily installed during daylight hours. Such devices are not readily adaptable to situations with large, diffuse and/or widely distributed entryways. Also, bats can be inadvertently trapped inside if an important exit hole is mistakenly identified as a minor one and is sealed in an attempt to limit the number of holes requiring an exclusion device.

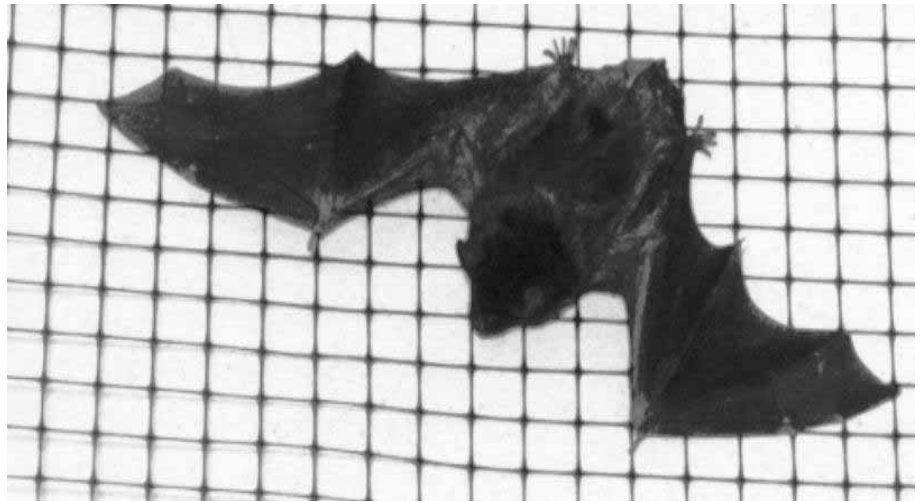


Fig. 12. Bat on birdnetting showing size relationships.

To overcome difficulties with exclusion devices, Frantz' checkvalve was developed using netting made of durable black polypropylene resin (Frantz 1984, 1986). Quality of product is important since the netting should not fray or become misshapen under hot summer conditions. Use only structural grade material that has openings no larger than 1/2 x 1/2 inch (1.3 x 1.3 cm), weighs about 1.3 ounces per square yard (44 g/m²) and is flexible yet stiff enough to maintain the shape of the checkvalve fabricated (Fig. 12). Waterproof duct tape, common staples, and/or wooden lath strips are used to attach the netting to metal, slate, brick, wood, asphalt shingle, or other surfaces. Note that duct tape may stain or discolor painted/enamelled surfaces if kept in contact for long periods of time.

Application of checkvalves follows the same two initial steps as traditional bat exclusion. Close interior openings, then close exterior openings except a few major exits. These latter openings will have been confirmed as important via bat watches, and it is here that checkvalves will be fitted during the daylight.

The basic design is to attach the netting around an exit hole except at the bottom where the bats will escape (see Frantz 1986, for details). The width and shape of checkvalves is highly variable so as to embrace the necessary

exit point — a single hole, a series of holes, or a long slitlike opening (Fig. 13). Designs must be open enough not to impede the exiting bats. The top can be much larger than the bottom. It is probably best to restrict the bottom opening to no larger than about 1.6 x 1.6 feet (0.5 x 0.5 m). The length of a checkvalve, that is, the distance from the lowest enclosed point of egress to the bottom of the netting, should be about 3.3 feet (1 m).

The above specifications usually are sufficient to abort bats' reentry attempts. If netting is applied while young are still in the roost, the "evicted" mothers may be motivated to chew holes in the netting to reenter the roost. Applied at the correct time of year, however, netting will allow all bats to exit at dusk and thereafter deny them reentry.

Checkvalves should be kept in place for 3 to 5 days. It is best to verify (conduct a bat watch) that bats no longer exit at dusk before the checkvalves are dismantled and the holes are sealed permanently. As in any exclusion intervention, the excluded animals will go elsewhere. This shift may be to an alternative roost already in use such as a night roost, or one used in previous years.

Supplemental Materials and

Methods. While specifications for Frantz' checkvalve have been

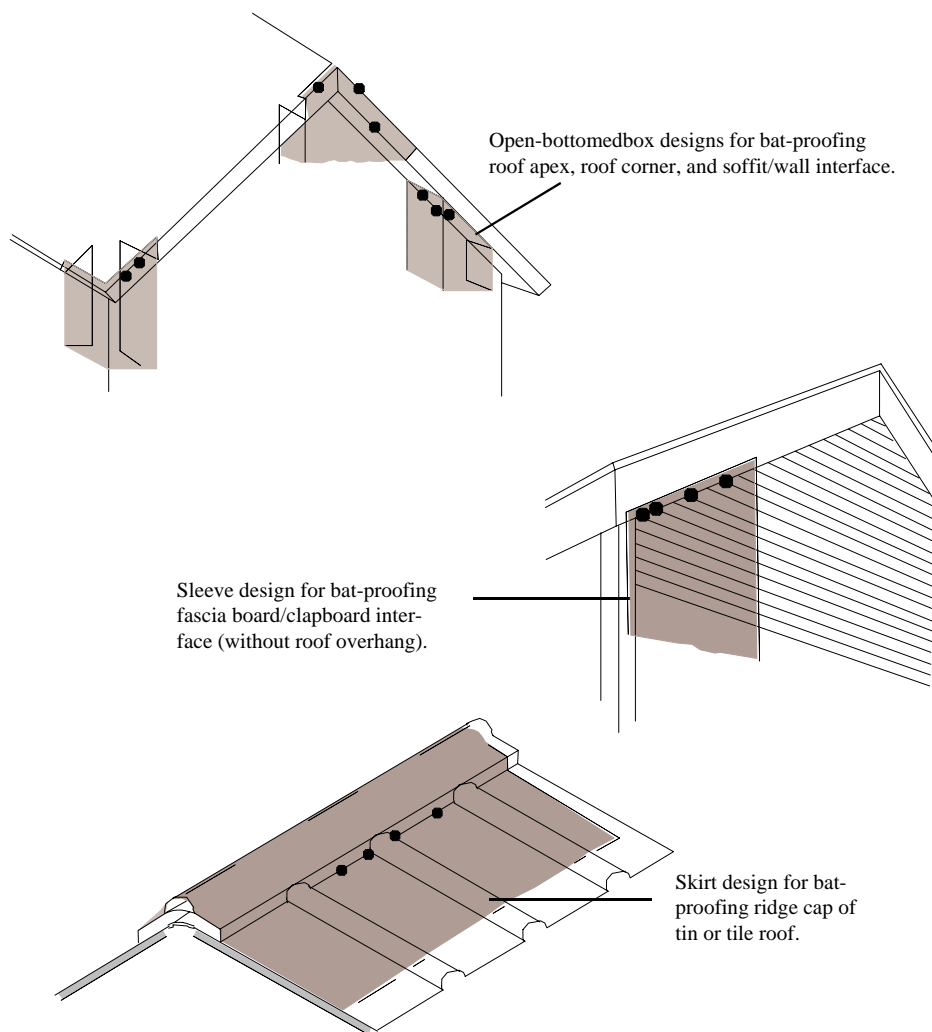



Fig. 13. Sample configurations for Frantz' checkvalve (Key:  = birdnetting; = attaching to structure; • = exit/entry holes of bats).

provided, additional caulking, flashing, screening, and insulation materials often are needed. The combination of materials used will depend on the location, size, and number of openings, and the need for ventilation. Greenhall (1982) provides many details of bat-proofing methods and materials and is a practical guide. Weatherstripping, knitted wire mesh (Guard-All®, Stuf-fit®), waterproof duct tape, stainless steel wool, and wood lath may be used to block long, narrow openings. Caulking compounds will seal cracks and

crevices that develop in a house as it ages, and are best applied during dry periods when wood cracks are widest. Caulks that may be applied with a caulking gun (in gaps up to about 0.4 inch [1 cm] wide) include latex, butyl, and acrylic, which last about 5 years. Elastomeric caulks, such as silicone rubber, will last indefinitely, expand and contract, do not dry or crack, and tolerate temperature extremes. Oakum packs easily and firmly into small cracks. Other fillers include sponge rubber, glass fiber, knitted wire mesh, and quick-setting putty. Self-

expanding polyurethane foam applied from pressurized containers can be used for openings larger than 3 inches (>7.5 cm). It must be applied with caution so as to not lift clapboards, shingles, and other surfaces. Exposed surfaces should be sealed with epoxy paint to prevent insect infestation and ultraviolet degradation.

Conventional draft sweeps (metal, rubber) and other weatherstripping supplies (felt, vinyl, metal) will seal the space between a door bottom and the threshold or around windows (Fig. 14). Remember to treat attic and basement doors whenever the gap exceeds 1/4 inch (0.6 cm). Flashing may be used to close gaps wherever joints occur; for example, where the roof meets a chimney. Materials commonly used include galvanized metal, copper, aluminum, and stainless steel. Self-adhesive stainless steel "tape" is also available. Insulation will provide some degree of barrier to bat movements. It is available in a number of forms and types including fiberglass, rock wool, urethane, vermiculite, polystyrene, and extruded polystyrene foam. Inorganic materials are fire and moisture resistant; the safest appear to be fiberglass and rock wool.

The mesh size of screening must be small enough to prevent access of bats and other species, where desired. Hardware cloth with 1/4-inch (0.6-cm) mesh will exclude bats and mice; screening with 16 meshes per inch (2.5 cm) will exclude most insects. Soffits (underside of overhanging eaves) usually have ventilators of various shapes and sizes. Regardless of type, the slots should not exceed 1/4 x 1 inch (0.6 cm x 2.5 cm) and should be covered inside with insect mesh. To prevent bats from entering chimney flues, completely enclose the flue discharge area with rust-resistant spark arresters or pest screens, secured to the top of the chimney. These should not be permanently attached (for example, with screws) in case they must be rapidly removed in the event of a chimney fire. Review fire codes before installing flue covers. Dampers should be kept closed except in the heating season.

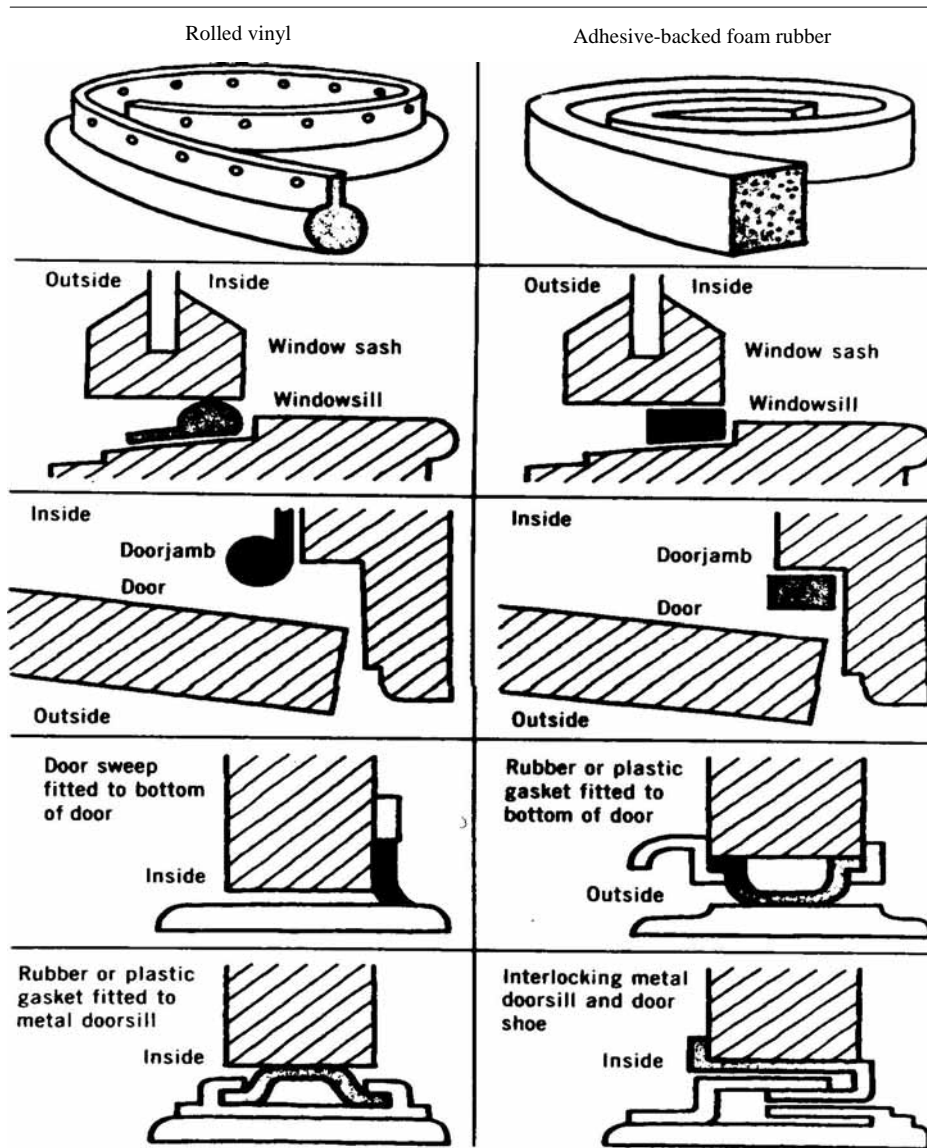


Fig. 14. Weatherstripping and door sweeps are very useful bat-proofing measures.



Fig. 15. Open ends of tile roofs may allow bat entry and provide roosting sites.

Roof Problems. Bats, particularly the Mexican free-tailed bat, often roost under Spanish or concrete tile roofing by entering the open ends at the lower-most row or where the tiles overlap (Fig. 15). Tight-fitting plugs are difficult to make due to the variation in opening sizes and thermal expansion and contraction. A solution was found by Constantine (1979) in which a layer of coarse fiberglass batting was laid under the tiles so that bats entering holes would contact the fiberglass and be repelled. A layer of knitted wire mesh would undoubtedly work well for this purpose (and would not hold moisture). Bats also may be excluded from the tiles if rain gutters are installed directly under the open ends. Gaps under corrugated and galvanized roofing may be closed with knitted wire mesh, self-expanding foam (avoid causing roofing to lift), or with fiberglass batting (may retain moisture).

Wall Problems. Fiberglass or rock wool insulation blown into wall spaces that are used by bats may be a deterrent, especially when it forms a physical barrier to passage. Such work must be done when bats are absent to avoid their entrapment.

Temporary Roosts. Bats will sometimes temporarily roost on porches and patios, in garages, and behind shutters, shingles, and roof gutters. Roosting behind shutters may also be long-term in duration. Actual control measures may not be necessary unless bat droppings become a problem or the risk of human contact is significant. Coarse fiberglass batting tacked to the surfaces where bats prefer to hang sometimes discourages them. A potentially useful intervention for the wall-ceiling interface is the application of a wide 45° molding strip to eliminate the 90° angle corner and force the bats to roost in a more exposed area.

Repellents

While many chemical aromatics and irritants have been proposed and tested for bat repellency, efficacy has been very limited thus far.

Naphthalene crystals and flakes are the only repellents registered by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) for indoor bat control and are to be applied in attics or between walls. Sometimes the chemical may be placed in loose-mesh cloth bags and suspended from the rafters. About 2.5 pounds per 1,000 cubic feet (1.2 kg/30 m³) is recommended to chronically repel bats as the chemical vaporizes. Dosages of 5 pounds per 1,000 cubic feet (2.4 kg/30 m³) may dislodge bats in broad daylight. Bats will return, however, when the odor dissipates. The prolonged inhalation of naphthalene vapors may be hazardous to human health.

Illumination has been reported to be an effective repellent. Floodlights strung through an attic to illuminate all roosting sites may cause bats to leave. Large attics may require many 100-watt bulbs or 150-watt spotlights to be effective. Fluorescent bulbs may also be used. In some situations such lighting is difficult, costly, and may result in an electrical hazard. Where possible, the addition of windows to brighten an attic will help to reduce the desirability of the roost site and is not likely to introduce additional problems.

Air drafts have successfully repelled bats in areas where it is possible to open doors, windows, or create strong breezes by use of electric fans. Addition of wall and roof vents will enhance this effort, as well as lower roost temperature. These measures will increase the thermoregulatory burden on the bats, thus making the roost less desirable. In a similar fashion, colonies located in soffits, behind cornices, and other closed-in areas can be discouraged by opening these areas to eliminate dark recesses. Discourage bats from roosting behind shutters by removing the shutters completely or by adding small blocks at the corners to space them a few inches away from the wall.

Ultrasonic devices have been tested under natural conditions, both indoors and outdoors, to repel little brown and big brown bats either in the roost or as

they fly toward an entrance hole (Frantz, unpublished data). The results have not been promising. Numerous ultrasonic devices have been removed from clients' homes because the bats remained in the roost after the devices were activated. Hurley and Fenton (1980) exposed little brown bats to ultrasound in seminatural roosts with virtually no effect. Largely because of this lack of known scientific efficacy for ultrasonic devices, the New York State Consumer Protection Board has cautioned against the use of such devices (NYSCP 1988). Part of the concern is that such devices will provide consumers with a false sense of security and, thus, may prevent them from taking effective preventive actions.

Distress cries of bats recorded on tape and rebroadcast can be used to attract other bats to nets or traps, but they do not serve as an effective repellent. Little brown and big brown bats respond to their own distress cries but not to the cries of other species.

Contact repellents, such as sticky-type bird repellents and rodent glues, have been used successfully in situations where roost surfaces and bat accesses may be coated. Apply masking tape to the surface first if you desire to remove the repellent after treatment is finished. Replenish contact repellents occasionally, since dust accumulation causes them to lose their tackiness. Also, caution must be exercised so as to apply coatings that will be sticky, but will not entrap the bats.

Toxicants (not recommended)

No toxicants are registered for controlling bats. In 1987 the Centers for Disease Control, United States Department of Health and Human Services, voluntarily withdrew the last registration for DDT use against bats in the United States. Thus, DDT is no longer registered for any use in this country.

Although federally registered for rodents, chlorophacinone (RoZol) tracking powder, an anticoagulant, is not registered for bats. Furthermore, it can no longer be registered by individual states for restricted use under

Section 24(c) of the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act D-18 (FIFRA). Lipha Tech, Inc. (the manufacturer of RoZol) has voluntarily cancelled its registration for "RoZol Tracking Powder for Control of Nuisance Bats" — effective December 16, 1991 (Fed. Reg., 1991).

Trapping

Kunz and Kurta (1988) reviewed an extensive variety of efficient methods for trapping bats from buildings and other roosting sites or foraging areas. For purposes of wildlife damage control, however, exclusion is less complicated to carry out, less time-consuming, more effective, and requires no handling of bats.

Other Methods

Sanitation and Cleanup. Once bats have been excluded, repelled, or have departed at the end of the summer, measures must be completed to make reinfestation less likely, and to eliminate odor and problematic bioaerosols. As a prelude to such work, it is sometimes useful to apply a pyrethrum-based, total-release aerosol insecticide to eliminate unwanted arthropods.

The safe handling and removal of bat guano has been discussed previously (see the histoplasmosis section in this chapter). In addition to the more bulky accumulations of excreta, there are often diffuse deposits of guano under/among insulation materials, caked urine and guano on roof beams, and splattered urine on windows. Such clean-up work during hot summer weather may be the least desirable activity of a management program, but it is necessary.

All caked, crystallized bat urine and droppings should be scraped and wire-brushed, as necessary, from all roof and attic beams. For this procedure, workers should take the same precautions as outlined for histoplasmosis-related work. Accumulated excreta and contaminated insulation should be sealed in plastic bags and removed for disposal. Remove all remaining droppings and debris with



Fig. 16. One of five bat houses constructed to provide an alternative roost for bats excluded from nearby structures.

a vacuum cleaner, preferably one that has a water filter to reduce the amount of dust that escapes from the cleaner's exhaust.

Where possible, wash with soap and water all surfaces contaminated with urine and guano. Allow the surfaces to dry, then disinfect them by misting or swabbing on a solution of 1 part household bleach and 20 parts tap water. Ventilate the roost site to allow odors and moisture to escape. Installation of tight-fitting window screens, roof and/or wall ventilators in attics will enhance this process. Remember, sanitation and cleanup accompanies bat-proofing and exclusion measures, it does not replace them.

Artificial Roosts. For more than 60 years, artificial bat roosts have been used in Europe. Only recently have they gained some popularity in the United States. Though the results are variable, it appears that artificial roosts, if properly constructed and located, can attract bats that are displaced or excluded from a structure. The Missouri Department of Conservation described a successful "bat refuge" that was quickly occupied by a displaced colony of little brown bats (LaVal and LaVal 1980). Bat houses of a similar design have been successfully used in Minnesota, New York, and elsewhere (see Fig. 16).

Development of an efficient method to relocate bats into alternative roosts after they have been excluded from buildings could be an important intervention in comprehensive bat management. Frantz (1989) found it helpful to "seed" newly constructed bat houses with several bats, a procedure that later resulted in full-scale colonization without further human interventions. Alternative roosts should be located away from human high-use areas. Thus, people can enjoy the benefits of bats without sharing their dwellings with them and with little risk of direct contact with them.

Economics of Damage and Control

Virtually all bats are of some economic importance; those north of Mexico are beneficial because of their insectivorous diet which eliminates many insect pests of humans. The accumulated bat droppings, called guano, is rich in nitrogen and is a good organic fertilizer. At one time, bat guano was commercially mined in the Southwest; but its importance has declined due to reduced bat populations and the development of inorganic fertilizers. Bat guano is still considered a valuable fertilizer resource in some parts of the world (such as Thailand and Mexico).

No figures are available to determine the extent of damage caused by nuisance bats or the cost for their control. The problem is widespread in this and other countries.

Costs for remedial services are highly variable, depending on the nature of the problem and who will do the work. For example, to fabricate a few Frantz' checkvalves on the "average" two-story house would probably require two workers about one-half day, mostly on stepladders, and less than \$50 in materials. Much more time would be required to seal up all the other active and potential bat exit/entry holes. In addition, if a deteriorated roof, eaves, or other woodwork must be replaced, the costs can increase rapidly.

It is often difficult or expensive for the public to obtain the services of reliable, licensed pest control operators (PCOs). Many PCOs have limited knowledge of basic bat biology and are apprehensive to work with bats. They may want to avoid any liabilities should bat-human contact occur. Select a qualified professional service that concentrates on the exclusion of live bats from a structure rather than on use of lethal chemicals.

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Figures 2 through 4 from Barbour and Davis (1979).

Figure 5 adapted from Harvey (1986).

Figure 6 adapted from Tuttle (1988), except *Yuma myotis* and Keen's bat (from Barbour and Davis 1979).

Figure 7 adapted from Trimarchi and Frantz (1985).

Figure 8 by R. Suss.

Figures 12, 15, and 16 by S. C. Frantz.

Figures 9, 10, 11, and 14 from Greenhall (1982)

Figure 13 by S. C. Frantz

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Editors

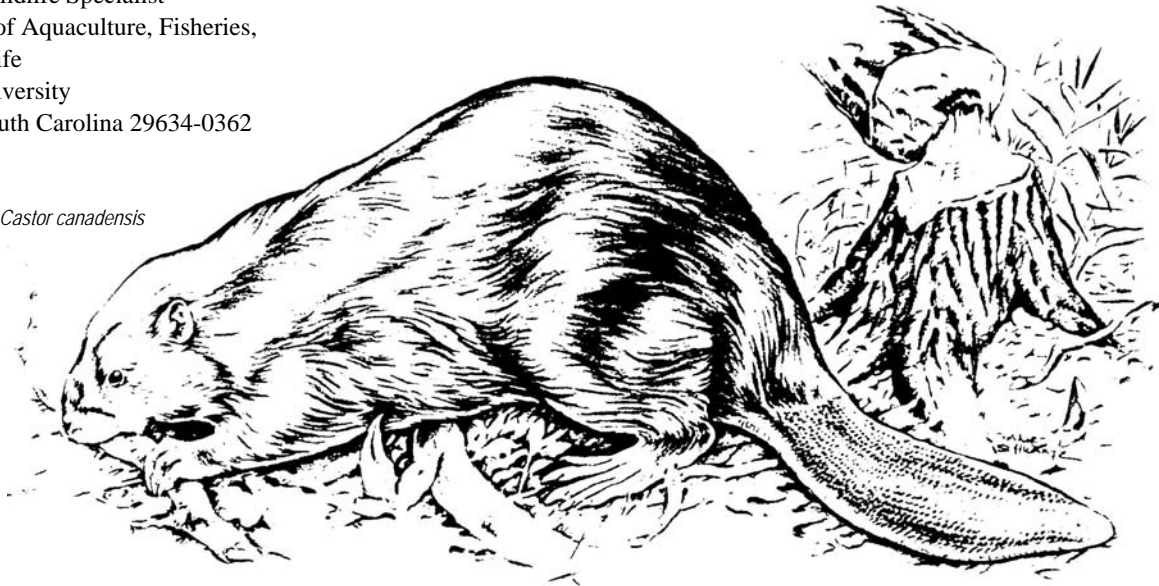
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BEAVERS

Fig. 1. Beaver, *Castor canadensis*



Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

Fence small critical areas such as culverts, drains, or other structures.

Install barriers around important trees in urban settings.

Cultural Methods and Habitat Modification

Eliminate foods, trees, and woody vegetation where feasible.

Continually destroy dams and materials used to build dams.

Install a Clemson beaver pond leveler, three-log drain, or other structural device to maintain a lower pond level and avoid further pond expansion.

In California, property owners suffering damage from beavers must obtain a permit from the DFG before taking any animals, unless taking beavers under the authority of a hunting or trapping license.

Trapping

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations).

There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

Basket/suitcase type traps are primarily used for live trapping.

Snares can be useful, particularly in dive sets and slides where legal.

Shooting

Rarely effective (where legal) for complete control efforts.

Other Methods

Other methods rarely solve a beaver damage problem and may increase risks to humans and non target species.



PREVENTION AND CONTROL OF WILDLIFE DAMAGE — 1994

Cooperative Extension Division
Institute of Agriculture and Natural Resources
University of Nebraska - Lincoln

United States Department of Agriculture
Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service
Animal Damage Control

90
Great Plains Agricultural Council
Wildlife Committee

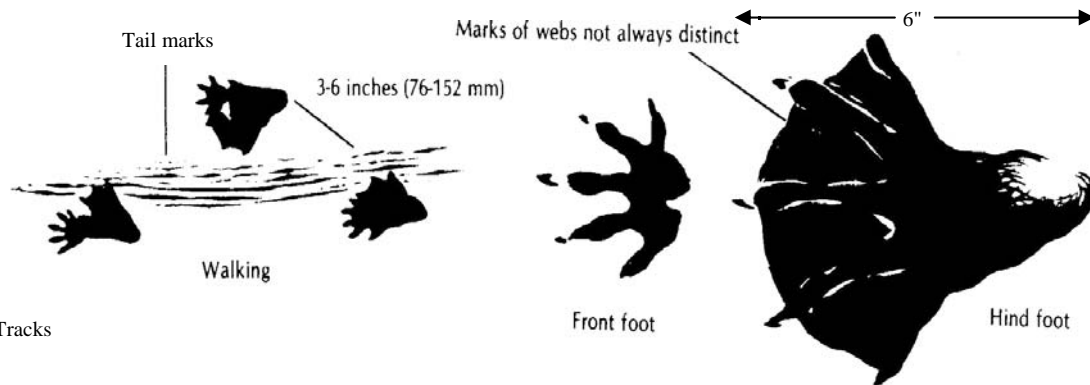


Fig. 2. Beaver Tracks

Identification

The beaver (*Castor canadensis*, Fig. 1) is the largest North American rodent. Most adults weigh from 35 to 50 pounds (15.8 to 22.5 kg), with some occasionally reaching 70 to 85 pounds (31.5 to 38.3 kg). Individuals have been known to reach over 100 pounds (45 kg). The beaver is a stocky rodent adapted for aquatic environments. Many of the beaver's features enable it to remain submerged for long periods of time. It has a valvular nose and ears, and lips that close behind the four large incisor teeth. Each of the four feet have five digits, with the hind feet webbed between digits and a split second claw on each hind foot. The front feet are small in comparison to the hind feet (Fig. 2). The underfur is dense and generally gray in color, whereas the guard hair is long, coarse and ranging in color from yellowish brown to black, with reddish brown the most common coloration. The prominent tail is flattened dorso-ventrally, scaled, and almost hairless. It is used as a prop while the beaver is sitting upright (Fig. 3) and for a rudder when swimming. Beavers also use their tail to warn others of danger by abruptly slapping the surface of the water. The beaver's large front (incisor) teeth, bright orange on the front, grow continuously throughout its life. These incisors are beveled so that they are continuously sharpened as the beaver gnaws and chews while feeding, girdling, and cutting trees. The only way to externally distinguish the sex of a beaver, unless the female is lactating, is to feel for the presence of a baculum (a bone in the penis) in males and its absence in females.

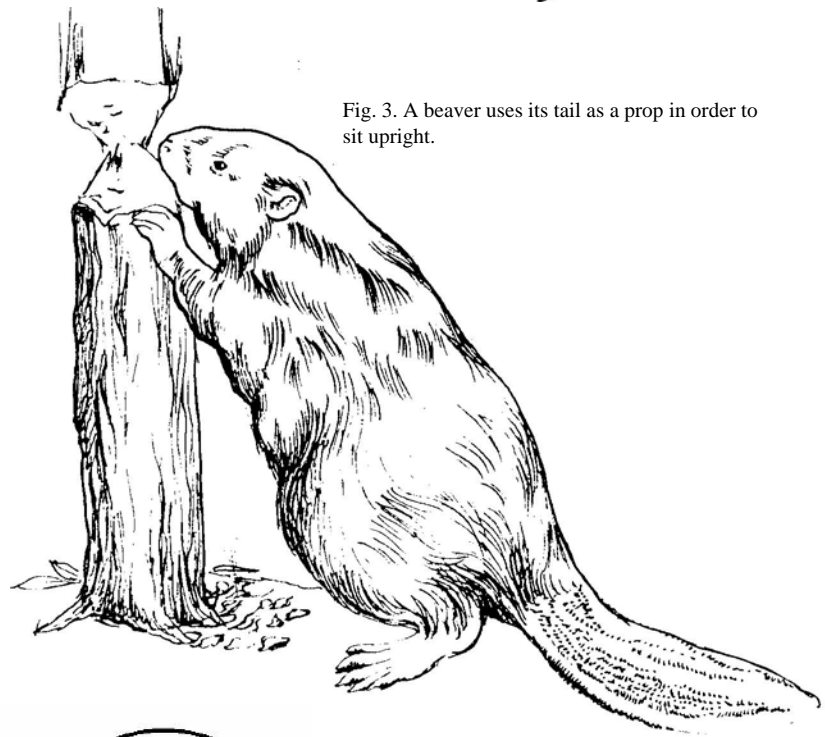
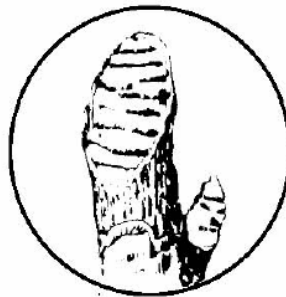


Fig. 3. A beaver uses its tail as a prop in order to sit upright.



Details of beaver cuttings.

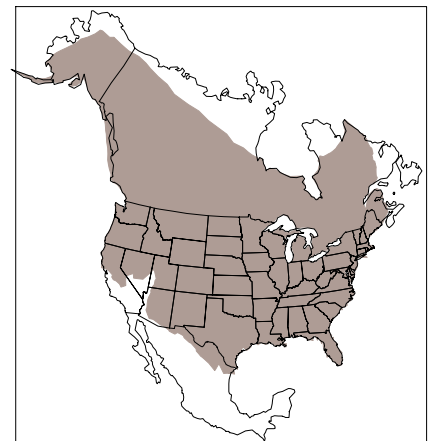


Fig. 4. Range of the beaver in North America.

Range

Beavers are found throughout North America, except for the arctic tundra, most of peninsular Florida, and the southwestern desert areas (Fig. 4). The species may be locally abundant wherever aquatic habitats are found.

Habitat

Beaver habitat is almost anywhere there is a year-round source of water, such as streams, lakes, farm ponds, swamps, wetland areas, roadside ditches, drainage ditches, canals, mine pits, oxbows, railroad rights-of-way, drains from sewage disposal ponds, and below natural springs or artesian wells. Beavers build dams to modify the environment more to their liking. Dam building is often stimulated by running water. The length or height of a dam generally depends upon what is necessary to slow the flow of water and create a pond. In areas of flat topography, the dam may not be over 36 inches (0.9 m) high but as much as 1/4 miles (0.4 km) long. In hilly or mountainous country, the dam may be 10 feet (3 m) high and only 50 feet (15 m) long. Beavers are adaptable and will use whatever materials are available to construct dams — fencing materials, bridge planking, crossties, rocks, wire, and other metal, wood, and fiber

materials. Therefore, about the only available aquatic habitat beavers avoid are those systems lacking acceptable foods, lodge or denning sites, or a suitable dam site. Some of the surrounding timber is cut down or girdled by beavers to form dams. Subsequent flooding of growing timber causes it to die, and aquatic vegetation soon begins growing. Other pioneer species (for example, willow, sweetgum, and buttonbush) soon grow around the edges of the flooded area, adding to the available food supply. The beaver thus helps create its own habitat.

Food Habits

Beavers prefer certain trees and woody species, such as aspen, cottonwood, willow, sweetgum, blackgum, black cherry, tulip poplar, and pine, depending on availability. However, they can and will eat the leaves, twigs, and bark of most species of woody plants that grow near the water, as well as a wide variety of herbaceous and aquatic plants. Beavers often travel 100 yards (90 m) or more from a pond or stream to get to corn fields, soybean fields, and other growing crops, where they cut the plants off at ground level and drag them back to the water. They eat parts of these plants and often use the remainder as construction material in the dam.

General Biology, Reproduction, and Behavior

Beavers are active for approximately 12 hours each night except on the coldest of winter nights. The phrase "busy as a beaver" is appropriate. It is not uncommon, however, to see beavers during daylight hours, particularly in larger reservoirs.

Beavers are generally monogamous; copulation may take place either in the water or in the lodge or bank den.

After a gestation period of about 128 days, the female beaver generally gives birth to 3 or 4 kittens between March and June, and nurses them for 6 weeks to 3 months. The kittens are born fully furred with their eyes partially opened and incisors erupted through the gums. They generally become sexually mature by the age of 1 1/2 years.

Beaver communicate by vocalizations, posture, tail slapping, and scent posts or mud mounds placed around the bank and dam. The beaver's castor glands secrete a substance that is deposited on mud mounds to mark territorial boundaries. These scent posts are found more frequently at certain seasons, but are found year-round in active ponds.



Fig. 5. Cross section of a beaver lodge.

Beavers have a relatively long life span, with individuals known to have lived to 21 years. Most, however, do not live beyond 10 years. The beaver is unparalleled at dam building and can build dams on fast-moving streams as well as slow-moving ones. They also build lodges and bank dens, depending on the available habitat. All lodges and bank dens have at least two entrances and may have four or more. The lodge or bank den is used primarily for raising young, sleeping, and food storage during severe weather (Fig. 5).

The size and species of trees the beaver cuts is highly variable — from a 1-inch (2.5-cm) diameter at breast height (DBH) softwood to a 6-foot (1.8-m) DBH hardwood. In some areas beavers usually cut down trees up to about 10 inches (25 cm) DBH and merely girdle or partially cut larger ones, although they often cut down much larger trees. Some beavers seem to like to girdle large pines and sweetgums. They like the gum or storax that seeps out of the girdled area of sweetgum and other species.

An important factor about beavers is their territoriality. A colony generally consists of four to eight related beavers, who resist additions or outsiders to the colony or the pond. Young beavers are commonly displaced from the colony shortly after they become sexually mature, at about 2 years old. They often move to another area to begin a new pond and colony. However, some become solitary hermits inhabiting old abandoned ponds or farm ponds if available.

Beavers have only a few natural predators aside from humans, including coyotes, bobcats, river otters, and mink, who prey on young kittens. In other areas, bears, mountain lions, wolves, and wolverines may prey on beavers. Beavers are hosts for several ectoparasites and internal parasites including nematodes, trematodes, and coccidians. *Giardia lamblia* is a pathogenic intestinal parasite transmitted by beavers, which has caused human health problems in water supply sys-



Fig. 6. Pine plantation in Arkansas killed in flooding caused by beavers.

tems. The Centers for Disease Control have recorded at least 41 outbreaks of waterborne Giardiasis, affecting more than 15,000 people. For more information about Giardiasis, see von Oettingen (1982).

Damage and Damage Identification

The habitat modification by beavers, caused primarily by dam building, is often beneficial to fish, furbearers, reptiles, amphibians, waterfowl, and shorebirds. However, when this modification comes in conflict with human objectives, the impact of damage may far outweigh the benefits.

Most of the damage caused by beavers is a result of dam building, bank burrowing, tree cutting, or flooding. Some southeastern states where beaver damage is extensive have estimated the cost at \$3 million to \$5 million dollars annually for timber loss; crop losses; roads, dwellings, and flooded property; and other damage. In some states, tracts of bottomland hardwood timber up to several thousand acres (ha) in size may be lost because of beaver. Some unusual cases observed

include state highways flooded because of beaver ponds, reservoir dams destroyed by bank den burrows collapsing, and train derailments caused by continued flooding and burrowing. Housing developments have been threatened by beaver dam flooding, and thousands of acres (ha) of cropland and young pine plantations have been flooded by beaver dams (Fig. 6). Road ditches, drain pipes, and culverts have been stopped up so badly that they had to be dynamited out and replaced. Some bridges have been destroyed because of beaver dam-building activity. In addition, beavers threaten human health by contaminating water supplies with *Giardia*.

Identifying beaver damage generally is not difficult. Signs include dams; dammed-up culverts, bridges, or drain pipes resulting in flooded lands, timber, roads, and crops; cut-down or girdled trees and crops; lodges and burrows in ponds, reservoir levees, and dams. In large watersheds, it may be difficult to locate bank dens. However, the limbs, cuttings, and debris around such areas as well as dams along tributaries usually help pinpoint the area.

Legal Status

In California, the beaver is designated as a furbearing mammal. In the taking of beaver must coincide with the furbearer season unless the animals are causing property damage. When property damage is occurring, the property owner or his agent may take the beaver but only when a permit has been issued from the DFG. See California statutes and regulations regarding the take of furbearing and nongame mammals.

Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

It is almost impossible as well as cost-prohibitive to exclude beavers from ponds, lakes, or impoundments. If the primary reason for fencing is to exclude beavers, fencing of large areas is not practical. Fencing of culverts, drain pipes, or other structures can sometimes prevent damage, but fencing can also promote damage, since it provides beavers with construction material for dams. Protect valuable trees adjacent to waterways by encircling them with hardware cloth, woven wire, or other metal barriers. Construction of concrete spillways or other permanent structures may reduce the impact of beavers.

Cultural Methods

Because beavers usually alter or modify their aquatic habitat so extensively over a period of time, most practices generally thought of as cultural have little impact on beavers. Where feasible, eliminate food, trees, and woody vegetation that is adjacent to beaver habitat. Continual destruction of dams and removal of dam construction materials daily will (depending on availability of construction materials) sometimes cause a

colony or individual beavers to move to another site. They might, however, be even more troublesome at the new location.

The use of a three-log drain or a structural device such as wire mesh culverts (Roblee 1983) or T-culvert guards (Roblee 1987) will occasionally cause beavers to move to other areas. They all prevent beavers from controlling water levels. However, once beavers have become abundant in a watershed or in a large contiguous area, periodic reinvasions of suitable habitat can be expected to occur. Three-log drains have had varying degrees of success in controlling water levels in beaver impoundments, especially if the beaver can detect the sound of falling water or current flow. All of these devices will stimulate the beavers to quickly plug the source of water drainage.

A new device for controlling beaver impoundments and keeping blocked culverts open is the Clemson beaver pond leveler. It has proven effective in allowing continual water flow in previously blocked culverts/drains and facilitating the manipulation of water levels in beaver ponds for moist-soil management for waterfowl (Wood and Woodward 1992) and other environmental or aesthetic purposes. The device (Fig. 7) consists of a perforated PVC pipe that is encased in heavy-gauge hog wire. This part is placed upstream of the dam or blocked culvert, in the main run or deepest part of the stream. It is connected to nonperforated sections of PVC pipe which are run through the dam or culvert to a water control structure downstream. It is effective because the beavers cannot detect the sound of falling or flowing water as the pond or culvert drains; therefore, they do not try to plug the pipe. The Clemson beaver pond leveler works best in relatively flat terrain where large volumes of water from watersheds in steep terrain are not a problem.

Repellents

There are no chemical repellents registered for beavers. Past research efforts have tried to determine the effective-

ness of potential repellent materials; however, none were found to be effective, environmentally safe, or practical. One study in Georgia (Hicks 1978) indicated that a deer repellent had some potential benefit. Other studies have used a combination of dam blowing and repellent soaked (Thiram 80 and/or paradichlorobenzene) rags to discourage beavers with varying degrees of success (Dyer and Rowell 1985).

Additional research is needed on repellents for beaver damage prevention.

Trapping

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations). There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

The use of traps in most situations where beavers are causing damage is the most effective, practical, and environmentally safe method of control. The effectiveness of any type of trap for beaver control is dependent on the trapper's knowledge of beaver habits, food preferences, ability to read beaver signs, use of the proper trap, and trap placement. A good trapper with a dozen traps can generally trap all the beavers in a given pond (behind one dam) in a week of trap nights. Obviously in a large watershed with several colonies, more trapping effort will be required. Most anyone with trapping experience and some outdoor "savvy" can become an effective beaver trapper in a short time. In an area where beavers are common and have not been exposed to trapping, anyone experienced in trapping can expect good success. Additional expertise and improved techniques will be gained through experience.

A variety of trapping methods and types of traps are effective for beavers, depending on the situation. Fish and wildlife agency regulations vary from

Table 1. List of materials for the Clemson Beaver Pond Leveler.

| Quantity | Item |
|-------------|---|
| 1 | 10' section, 10" diameter PVC pipe (Schedule 40) |
| 1 | PVC cap for 10" diameter PVC pipe (Schedule 40) |
| 1 | 10" x 8" PVC pipe reducer coupling (Schedule 40) |
| 4 | 86" sections, 3/4" diameter plastic roll pipe (water pipe), 160 psi grade |
| 4 | 3/4" metal couplings for roll pipe |
| 16 | 1/4" x 2" galvanized eyebolts |
| 16 | 1/4" galvanized nuts |
| 16 | 1/4" galvanized washers |
| 16 | 16" sections, 8 gauge galvanized wire (medium hardness) |
| 2 | 96" sections, 2" x 4" 1/2 gauge galvanized welded wire |
| 2 lbs | Crab trap clamps (fasteners) |

The above materials are required to assemble the intake device. The carrying pipe (flow pipe) may consist of 20 to 40 feet of 8-inch diameter PVC, Schedule 40 with coupling sleeves and elbows appropriate to the desired configuration.

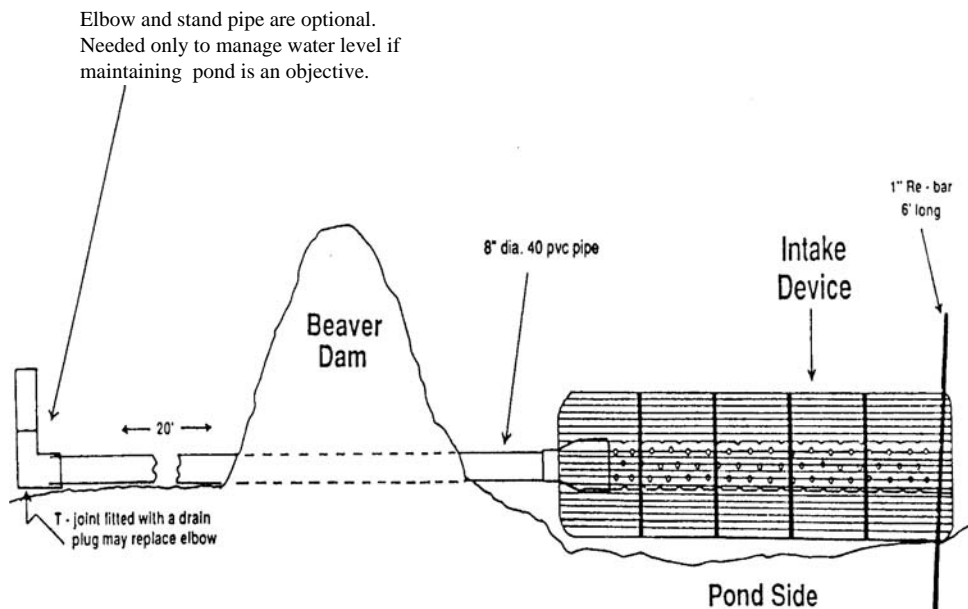


Fig. 7. Clemson beaver pond leveler.

state to state. Some types of traps and trapping methods, although effective, may be prohibited by law.

Of the variety of traps commonly allowed for use in beaver control, the Conibear® type, No. 330, is one of the most effective (Fig. 8). Not all trappers will agree that this type of trap is the most effective; however, it is the type most commonly used by professional trappers and others who are principally trapping beavers. This trap kills beavers almost instantly. When properly set, the trap also prevents any

escape by a beaver, regardless of its size. Designed primarily for water use, it is equally effective in deep and shallow water. Only one trap per site is generally necessary, thus reducing the need for extra traps. The trap exerts tremendous pressure and impact when tripped. Appropriate care must be exercised when setting and placing the trap. Care should also be taken when using the Conibear® type traps in urban and rural areas where pets (especially dogs) roam free. Use trap sets where the trap is placed completely underwater.

Some additional equipment will be useful: an axe, hatchet, or large cutting tool; hip boots or waders; wire; and wire cutters. With the Conibear®-type trap, some individuals use a device or tool called "setting tongs." Others use a piece of 3/8- or 1/2-inch (9- or 13-mm) nylon rope. Most individuals who are experienced with these traps use only their hands. Regardless of the techniques used to set the trap, care should be exercised.

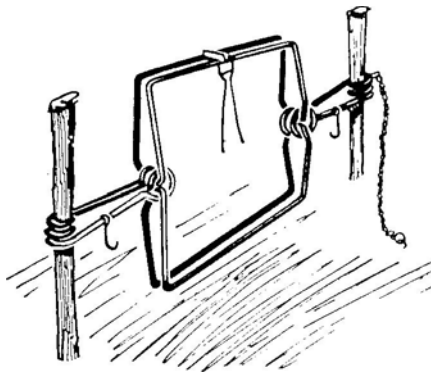


Fig. 8. Basic method of setting and staking a Conibear® 330 trap. Additional stakes are normally used (see Fig. 9).

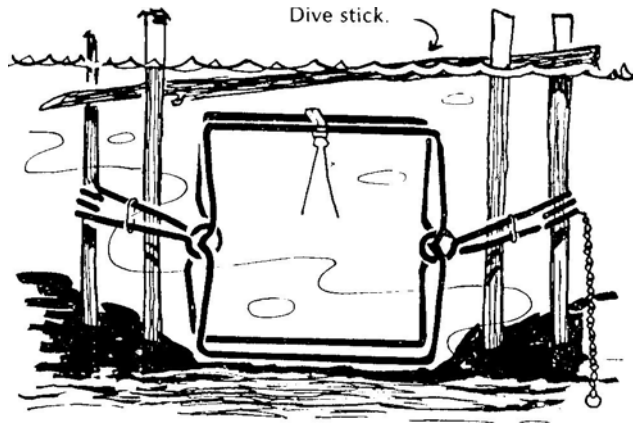


Fig. 9. Conibear trap in dive set.

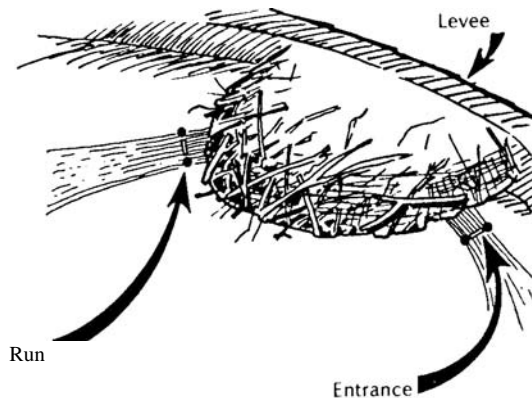


Fig. 10. Runs or underwater entrances to lodges are good places to set beaver traps.

Earlier models of the Conibear® type of trap came with round, heavy steel coils which were dangerous to handle unless properly used in setting the trap. They are not necessary to safely set the trap. However, the two safety hooks, one on each spring, must be carefully handled as each spring is

depressed, as well as during trap placement. On newer models an additional safety catch (not attached to the springs) is included for extra precaution against inadvertent spring release. The last step before leaving a set trap is to lift the safety hook attached to each spring and slide the safety hook back from the trap toward the spring eye,

making sure to keep hands and feet safely away from the center of the trap. If the extra (unattached) safety catch is used, it should be removed before the safety hooks that are attached to the springs to keep it from getting in the way of the movement of the safety hooks.

Conibear®-type traps are best set while on solid ground with dry hands. Once the springs are depressed and the safety hooks in place, the trap or traps can be carried into the water for proper placement. Stakes are needed to anchor the trap down. In most beaver ponds and around beaver dams, plenty of suitable stakes can be found. At least two strong stakes, preferably straight and without forks or snags, should be chosen to place through each spring eye (Fig. 8). Additional stakes may be useful to put between the spring arms and help hold the trap in place. Do not place stakes on the outside of spring arms. Aside from serving to hold the trap in place, these stakes also help to guide the beaver into the trap. Where needed, they are also useful in holding a dive stick at or just beneath the water surface (Fig. 9). If necessary, the chain and circle attached to one spring eye can be attached to another stake. In deep water sets, a chain with an attached wire should be tied to something at or above the surface so the trapper can retrieve the trap. Otherwise the trap may be lost.

Trap Sets.

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations). There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

There are many sets that can be made with a Conibear®-type trap (for example, dam sets, slide sets, lodge sets, bank den sets, "run"/trail sets, under log/dive sets, pole sets, under ice sets, deep water sets, drain pipe sets), depending on the trapper's capability and ingenuity. In many beaver ponds, however, most beavers can be trapped using dam sets, lodge or bank den sets, sets in "runs"/trails, dive sets or sets in slides entering the water from places where beavers are feeding. Beavers swim both at the surface or along the bottom of ponds, depending on the habitat and water depth. Beavers also establish runs or trails which they habitually use in traveling from lodge or den to the dam or to feeding areas, much like cow trails in a pasture.

Place traps directly across these runs, staked to the bottom (Fig. 10).

Use a good stake or "walking staff" when wading in a beaver pond to locate deep holes, runs, or trails. This will prevent stepping off over waders or hip boots in winter, and will help ward off cottonmouth snakes in the summer. The staff can also help locate good dive holes under logs as you walk out runs or trails. In older beaver ponds, particularly in bottomland swamps, it is not uncommon to find runs and lodge or bank den entrances where the run or hole is 2 to 3 feet (0.6 to 0.9 m) below the rest of the impoundment bottom.

Several other types of traps can be used, including basket/suitcase type live traps. These are rarely used, however, except by professionals in urban areas where anti-trap sentiment or other reasons prevent the killing of beavers. These traps are difficult and cumbersome to use, and will not be further discussed here for use in beaver damage control. Any type of traps used for beavers or other animals should be checked daily.

Snaring can be a very cost-effective method for capturing beavers. Snaring equipment costs far less than trapping equipment and is more convenient to use in many situations. In addition, beavers can be captured alive by snaring and released elsewhere if desired.

Snare placement is similar to trap placement. First, look for runways and fresh sign that indicate where beaver activities are focused. Find a suitable anchor such as a large tree, log, or root within 10 feet (3 m) of the runway where the snare will be set. If necessary, anchor snares by rods driven into the ground, but this is more time consuming and less secure. Attach three 14-gauge wires to the anchor so that each can swivel freely. Cut each wire to length so they reach about 1 foot (30 cm) past the runway. Twist the wires together to form a strong braided anchor cable. Drive a supporting stake into the ground near the runway and wrap the free end of the anchor cable around it twice. Prepare a new, dyed, No. 4 beaver or coyote snare, consisting of 42 inches (107 cm) of 3/32-inch (2.4-mm) steel cable with an attached wire swivel and slide lock. Twist the free ends of the three anchor wires around the wire swivel on the end of the snare cable. Wrap the longest anchor wire around the base of the wire swivel and crimp it onto the snare cable about 2 inches (5 cm) from the swivel. Use both the stake and the supporting anchor wire to suspend a full-sized loop about 4 inches (10 cm) above the runway. If necessary, use guide sticks or other natural debris to guide beaver into the snare.

The described snare set is very common, but there are several variations and sets that can be used. Snares are frequently placed under logs, near bank dens, and next to castor mounds. Drowning sets can be made using underwater anchors, slide cables, and slide locks.

Snared beavers should either be immediately released or dispatched with a sharp blow or shot to the head.

Snares must be used with great care to avoid capturing nontarget animals. Avoid trails or areas that are used by livestock, deer, or dogs. Check with your local wildlife agency for regulations associated with trapping and snaring. Snaring is not allowed in some states.

For more information about the use of snares see *A Guide to Using Snares for Beaver Capture* (Weaver et al. 1985) listed at the end of this chapter.

Shooting

For information on legal ways of shooting beavers, see California laws and regulations pertaining to authorized methods of take.

Economics of Damage and Control

The economics of beaver damage is somewhat dependent on the extent of the damage before it has been discovered. Some beaver damage problems are *intensive*, such as damage caused by one or two beavers in a new pond, damming or stopping up a culvert or drain pipe, flooding roads, or crops. Other problems are *extensive*, such as several beaver colonies in a flatland area, responsible for the flooding of several hundred acres of marketable timber that will die unless the

water is removed quickly. Generally speaking, if a culvert or drain pipe can be unstopped, a knowledgeable trapper can remove one or two beavers in a night or two and eliminate further damage in an intensive damage situation. However, an extensive situation may require a concentrated effort with several trappers, dynamiting or pulling dams, and a month or more of trapping to get the water off the timber and reduce further timber losses.

Economic damage is estimated to have exceeded \$40 billion in the Southeastern United States during a recent 40-year period (Arner and Dubose 1982). This would include all damage to crops, forests, roads, pastures, and other rural and urban properties.

Economically, one must assess the situation and weigh the tradeoffs: the potential loss of thousands of board feet of timber and years of regeneration versus the cost of trapping. The cost of a couple of nights' trapping and a half-day of labor to clear the culverts is much less than the cost of rebuilding a washed-out road or losing flooded crops or timber.

The most important point is that damage control should begin as soon as it is evident that a beaver problem exists or appears likely to develop. Once beaver colonies become well established over a large contiguous area, achieving control is difficult and costly. One of the most difficult situations arises when an adjacent landowner will not allow the control of beavers on their property. In this situation, one can expect periodic reinvasions of beavers and continual problems with beaver damage, even if all beavers are removed from the property where control is practiced.

Although benefits of beavers and beaver ponds are not covered in depth here, there are a number. Aside from creating fish, waterfowl, furbearer, shorebird, reptile, and amphibian habitat, the beaver in many areas is an important fur resource, as well as a food resource. For those who have not yet tried it, beaver meat is excellent

table fare if properly prepared, and it can be used whether the pelts are worth skinning or not. It also makes good bait for trapping large predators.

Proper precautions, such as wearing rubber gloves, should be taken when skinning or eviscerating beaver carcasses, to avoid contracting transmissible diseases such as tularemia.

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The authors thank, for their cooperation, past and present employees of the Fish and Wildlife Service, US Department of the Interior, county extension agents with the Cooperative Extension Service in various states, cooperators with the USDA-APHIS-ADC program in a number of states, and the many landowners with beaver problems across the South. The experience gained in efforts to assist landowners with wildlife damage problems provided most of the information contained herein.

Figures 1, 2, 4 and 5 from Schwartz and Schwartz (1981).

Figure 3 by Jill Sack Johnson.

Figure 6 and 7 by the authors.

Figures 8 through 10 from Miller (1978).

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BOBCATS



Fig. 1. Bobcat, *Lynx rufus*

Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

Fence poultry and other small livestock located near human residence.

Cultural Methods

Clear brush and timber in and around farmsteads and between large expanses of bobcat habitat and farmsteads.

Frightening

Place flashing white lights, loud music, or dogs with livestock.

Repellents

None are registered.

Trapping

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations).

There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

Shooting

Predator calls, experienced trail hounds, and centerfire rifles.



PREVENTION AND CONTROL OF WILDLIFE DAMAGE — 1994

Cooperative Extension Division
Institute of Agriculture and Natural Resources
University of Nebraska - Lincoln
United States Department of Agriculture
Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service
Animal Damage Control
Great Plains Agricultural Council
Wildlife Committee 99

Identification

The bobcat (*Lynx rufus*), alias "wild-cat," is a medium-sized member of the North American cat family. It can be distinguished at a distance by its graceful catlike movements, short (4- to 6-inches [10- to 15-cm]) "bobbed" tail, and round face and pointed ears (Fig. 1). Visible at close distances are black hair at the tip of the tail and prominent white dots on the upper side of the ears.

Body hair color varies, but the animal's sides and flanks are usually brownish black or reddish brown with either distinct or faint black spots. The back is commonly brownish yellow with a dark line down the middle. The chest and outside of the legs are covered with brownish to light gray fur with black spots or bars. Bobcats living at high elevations and in northern states and Canada have relatively long hair. In southern states, bobcats may have a yellowish or reddish cast on their backs and necks.

Similar Species. The bobcat is two to three times the size of the domestic cat and appears more muscular and fuller in the body. Also, the bobcat's hind legs are proportionately longer to its front legs than those of the domestic cat.

The Canada lynx appears more slender and has proportionately larger feet than the bobcat. At close distances, the ear tufts of the lynx can be seen. The tail of the lynx appears shorter than the bobcat's and its tip looks like it was dipped in black paint. The bobcat's tail is whitish below the tip. Lynx commonly occur in Canada's coniferous forests and, rarely, in the Rocky Mountains. Where both species occur, lynx occupy the more densely forested habitats with heavy snow cover.

Male bobcats tend to be larger than females. Adult males range from 32 to 40 inches (80 to 102 cm) long and weigh from 14 to 40 pounds (6 to 18 kg) or more. Bobcats in Wyoming average between 20 and 30 pounds (9 and 14 kg). Nationwide, adult females range from 28 to 32 inches (71 to 81

cm) long and weigh from 9 to 33 pounds (4 to 15 kg). Records indicate a tendency for heavier bobcats in the northern portions of their range and in western states at medium altitudes.

The skull has 28 teeth. Milk teeth are replaced by permanent teeth when kittens are 4 to 6 months old. Females have 6 mammae.

Range and Habitat

The bobcat occurs in a wide variety of habitats from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean and from Mexico to northern British Columbia (Fig. 2). It occurs in the 48 contiguous states.

The bobcat is as adapted to subtropical forests as it is to dense shrub and hardwood cover in temperate climates. Other habitats include chaparral, wooded streams, river bottoms, canyonlands, and coniferous forests to 9,000 feet (2,743 m). Bobcats prefer areas where these native habitat types are interspersed with agriculture and escape cover (rocky outcrops) close by. The bobcat has thrived where agriculture is interspersed through the above native habitat types, as in southern Canada.

Food Habits

Bobcats are capable of hunting and killing prey that range from the size of a mouse to that of a deer. Rabbits, tree squirrels, ground squirrels, woodrats,

porcupines, pocket gophers, and ground hogs comprise most of their diet. Opossums, raccoon, grouse, wild turkey, and other ground-nesting birds are also eaten. Occasionally, insects and reptiles can be part of the bobcat's diet. In Canada, the snowshoe hare is the bobcat's favorite fare. Bobcats occasionally kill livestock. They also resort to scavenging.

General Biology, Reproduction, and Behavior

Bobcats are secretive, shy, solitary, and seldom seen in the wild. They are active during the day but prefer twilight, dawn, or night hours. Bobcats tend to travel well-worn animal trails, logging roads, and other paths. They use their acute vision and hearing for locating enemies and prey.

Bobcats do not form lasting pair bonds. Mating can occur between most adult animals. In Wyoming, female bobcats reach sexual maturity within their first year but males are not sexually mature until their second year. Nationwide, breeding can occur from January to June. In Wyoming, breeding typically begins in February and the first estrus cycle in mid-March. The gestation period in bobcats ranges from 50 to 70 days, averaging 62 days.

Nationwide, young are born from March to July, with litters as late as October. The breeding season may be affected by latitude, altitude, and longitude, as well as by characteristics of each bobcat population. In Wyoming, births peak mid-May to mid-June and can occur as late as August or September. These late litters may be from recycling or late-cycling females, probably yearlings. In Utah, births may peak in April or May. In Arkansas, births may peak as early as March.

Bobcats weigh about 2/3 pound (300 g) at birth. Litters contain from 2 to 4 kittens. Kittens nurse for about 60 days and may accompany their mother through their first winter. Although young bobcats grow very quickly

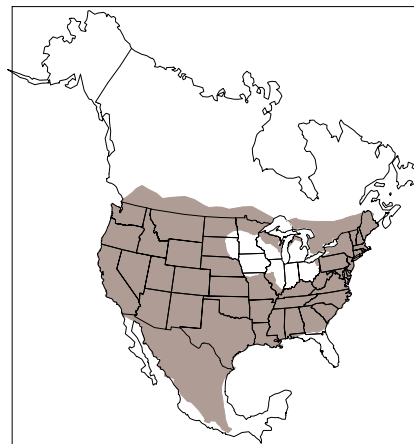


Fig. 2 Range of the bobcat in North America.

during their first 6 months, males may not be fully grown until 1 1/2 years and females until 2 years of age. Bobcats may live for at least 12 years in the wild.

Bobcats reach densities of about 1 per 1/4 square mile (0.7 km²) on some of the Gulf Coast islands of the southeastern United States. Densities vary from about 1 per 1/2 square mile (1.3 km²) in the coastal plains to about 1 cat per 4 square miles (10.7 km²) in portions of the Appalachian foothills. Mid-Atlantic and midwestern states usually have scarce populations of bobcats.

The social organization and home range of bobcats can vary with climate, habitat type, availability of food, and predators. Bobcats are typically territorial and will maintain the same territories throughout their lives. One study showed home ranges in south Texas to be as small as 5/8 square mile (1.0 km²). Another study showed that individual bobcats in southeastern Idaho maintain home ranges from 2.5 square miles to 42.5 square miles (6.5 km² to 108 km²) during a year. Females and yearlings with newly established territories tend to have smaller and more exclusive ranges than males. Females also tend to use all parts of their range more intensively than adult males.

Bobcats commonly move 1 to 4 miles (2 to 7 km) each day. One study found that bobcats in Wyoming moved from 3 to 7.5 miles (5 to 12 km) each day. Transient animals can move much greater distances; for example, a juvenile in one study moved 99 miles (158 km).

Adult bobcats are usually found separately except during the breeding season. Kittens may be seen with their mothers in late summer through winter. An Idaho study found adult bobcats and kittens in den sites during periods of extreme cold and snow. Females with kittens less than 4 months old generally avoid adult males because they kill kittens.

In Canada and the western United States, bobcat population levels tend to follow prey densities. Some biologists

believe that coyote predation restricts bobcat numbers. Unfortunately, not enough is known about the relative importance of factors such as litter size, kitten survival, adult sex ratios, and survival rates to predict changes in local bobcat populations. Also, relatively low densities and variable trapping success hinder researchers from easily predicting changes in populations.

Since the late 1970s, state game agencies have been tagging bobcat pelts harvested in their states. Information from these pelts is being used to estimate bobcat population trends and factors that contribute to those changes.

Damage and Damage Identification

Bobcats are opportunistic predators, feeding on poultry, sheep, goats, house cats, small dogs, exotic birds and game animals, and, rarely, calves. Bobcats can easily kill domestic and wild turkeys, usually by climbing into their night roosts. In some areas, bobcats can prevent the successful introduction and establishment of wild turkeys or can deplete existing populations.

Bobcats leave a variety of sign. Bobcat tracks are about 2 to 3 inches (5 to 8 cm) in diameter and resemble those of a large house cat. Their walking stride length between tracks is about 7 inches (18 cm).

Carcasses of bobcat kills are often distinguishable from those of cougar, coyote, or fox. Bobcats leave claw marks on the backs or shoulders of adult deer or antelope. On large carcasses, bobcats usually open an area just behind the ribs and begin feeding on the viscera. Sometimes feeding starts at the neck, shoulders, or hindquarters. Bobcats and cougar leave clean-cut edges of tissue or bone while coyotes leave ragged edges where they feed.

Bobcats bite the skull, neck, or throat of small prey like lambs, kids, or fawns, and leave claw marks on their sides, back, and shoulders. A single bite to the throat, just behind the

victim's jaws, leaves canine teeth marks 3/4 to 1 inch (2 to 2.5 cm) apart.

Carcasses that are rabbit-size or smaller may be entirely consumed at one feeding. Bobcats may return several times to feed on large carcasses.

Bobcats, like cougars, often attempt to cover unconsumed remains of kills by scratching leaves, dirt, or snow over them. Bobcats reach out about 15 inches (38 cm) in raking up debris to cover their kills, while cougars may reach out 24 inches (61 cm).

Bobcats also leave signs at den sites. Young kittens attempt to cover their feces at their dens. Females with young kittens may mark prominent points around den sites with their feces. Adult bobcats leave conspicuous feces along frequently traveled rocky ridges or other trails. These are sometimes used as territorial markings at boundaries.

Adult bobcats also mark trails or cave entrances with urine. This is sprayed on rocks, bushes, or snow banks. Bobcats may leave claw marks at urine or feces scent posts by scraping with their hind feet. These marks are 10 to 12 inches (25 to 30 cm) long by 1/2 inch (1.25 cm) wide.

Bobcats also occasionally squirt a pasty substance from their anal glands to mark areas. The color of this substance is white to light yellow in young bobcats but is darker in older bobcats.

Legal Status

In California, bobcats are classified as nongame mammals. There is a trapping and hunting season when bobcats may be harvested. Landowners suffering from property damage may take the bobcats without obtaining a permit from the DFG. However, there is a 30-day notification requirement in which the landowner must notify the DFG that a bobcat was taken. See California statutes and regulations regarding the take of furbearing and nongame mammals.

Damage Prevention and Control Methods

Exclusion

Use woven-wire enclosures to discourage bobcats from entering poultry and small animal pens at night. Bobcats can climb, so wooden fence posts or structures that give the bobcat footing may not be effective. Bobcats also have the ability to jump fences 6 feet (1.8 m) or more in height. Use woven wire overhead if necessary. Fences are seldom totally effective except in very small enclosures.

Cultural Methods

Bobcats prefer areas with sufficient brush, timber, rocks, and other cover, and normally do not move far from these areas. Keep brush cut or sprayed around ranches and farmsteads to eliminate routes of connecting vegetation from bobcat habitat to potential predation sites.

Frightening

Use night lighting with white flashing lights, or bright continuous lighting, to repel bobcats. You can also use blaring music, barking dogs, or changes in familiar structures to temporarily discourage bobcats.

Repellents

No chemical repellents are currently registered for bobcats. Commercial house cat repellents might be effective in some very unusual circumstances.

Trapping

Body-gripping traps are illegal for use in commercial fur or recreational application in California (see regulations). There are zones throughout California where the use of Conibear-type traps and snares, except those totally submerged, and deadfall traps are prohibited for the protection of the San Joaquin kit fox and Sierra Nevada red fox (see regulations).

Bobcats are more easily trapped than are coyotes or foxes, but the bobcat's reclusiveness makes set locations difficult to find. When hunting, bobcats use their sense of smell less than coyotes do, so lures and baits are usually not effective. The bobcat's acute vision, hearing, and inquisitiveness however, can be capitalized upon.

Wire Cage Traps. Very large cage traps, made of wire mesh or metal, when properly set, are effective. Commercial traps from 15 x 15 x 40 inches (38 x 38 x 100 cm) up to 24 x 24 x 48 inches (60 x 60 x 120 cm) are available.

Use brush or grass on the top and sides of the cage to give the appearance of a natural "cubby" or recess in a rock outcrop or brush. Traps should be set in the vicinity of depredations, travelways to and from bobcat cover, and around bobcat trails, dens, and hunting sites. Cover the cage bottom with soil. Bait the cage with poultry, rabbit, or muskrat carcasses, or live animals. Check local and state laws for restrictions.

Snares. Snares are very effective for bobcats but require expertise and caution. When properly set, a snare can be used to either kill or restrain a bobcat. Snares can be placed in the same locations and situations as body-gripping traps. They are particularly effective in cubby sets, bobcat runways, and den entrances (Fig. 6). Properly placed, snares offer the advantages of body-gripping traps without the danger to pets and nontarget wildlife.

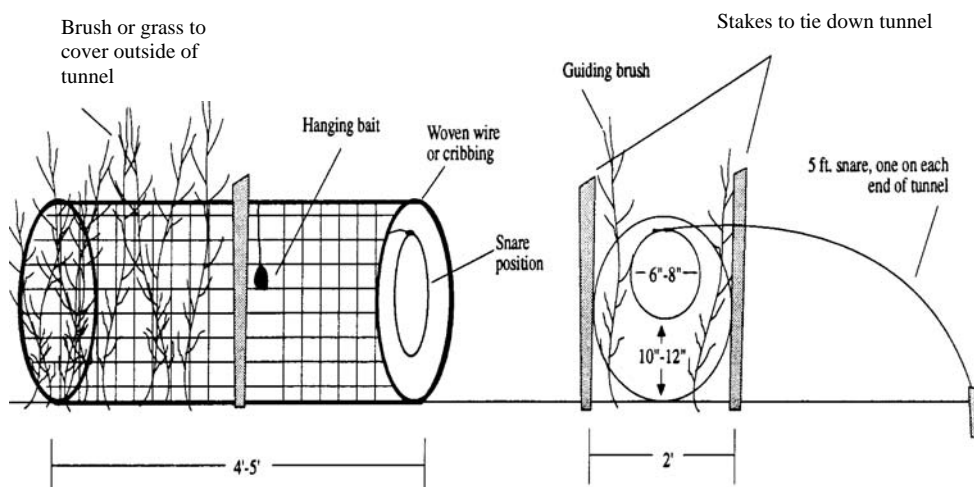


Fig. 6. Cubby set with snare.

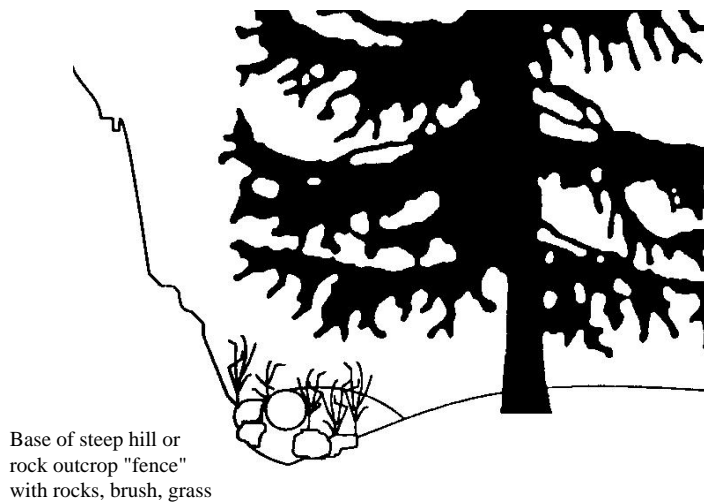


Fig. 7. Trail set with snare.

Set snares in trails where bobcats are known to travel (Fig. 7). Baits and lures are usually not used with snares and may hinder success. Use camouflage only to break up some of the outline of the snare, preferably with native material, like grasses. Do not tie camouflage material to the loop of the snare. Spring-loaded snares work best. Put "memory" into the snare by placing tension on the inside of the lock against the cable with your finger as you close the snare once or twice. This prevents a bobcat from walking through a snare. Cables respond to the memory by closing easily.

Kill snares actually kill the captured bobcat.

They are best made from fine steel cable, 1/16 inch (0.15 cm) or 5/64 inch (0.2 cm) in diameter. Positive locks work well. Set kill snares with the bottom of the loop about 10 to 12 inches (25 to 30 cm) off the ground with a loop 6 to 8 inches (15 to 20 cm) in diameter (Fig. 8). This loop must be set perpendicular to the trail.

Live snare sets capture and hold bobcats alive. They differ from kill snare sets by their cable size, locks, and entanglement precautions. Larger cables and relaxed locks on live snare sets can reduce injury if set properly. Relaxed locks tighten onto animals but relax as the animal stops struggling. This allows the animal to breathe normally and regain composure.

Kill snares may be tied off to a 3-inch (7.5-cm) diameter tree or larger. To aid quick kills, hammer 2-foot (60-cm) stakes into the ground, leaving 6 to 8 inches (15 to 20 cm) aboveground.

The live snare set (Fig. 9) requires more expertise than the kill snare set. Also, capture and transport of bobcats is very dangerous. Use 3/32-inch (0.25-cm) steel cable 6 to 8 feet (1.9 to 2.5 m) long. Use snares with high quality swivels located midway or closer to the loop. Stake live snares to the ground with steel stakes, hammered to just below ground level. Use loop sizes as in the kill snare set. Clear

brush and other entanglements from the area.

Use extreme caution when releasing a snared animal. Catch poles with adjustable steel nooses, thick leather gloves or gauntlets, and other protective clothing are necessary. Immobilizing drugs such as ketamine hydrochloride should be accessible. Two people should handle captures; one at the neck and the other at the back feet to remove the snare. Cut a 1/2- x 4-inch (1.2- x 10-cm) slot from the bottom up toward the center of a 3- x 3-foot (1- x 1-m), 5/8-inch (1.6-cm) or larger piece of plywood. A handle should be attached at the upper end. Place the plywood between you and the snared animal and let the cable run through the slot as you approach, keeping the cable tight. Check live snare sets frequently to avoid unnecessary stress and loss of captured bobcats to predators, such as eagles, coyotes, and mountain lions. Always ask for expert advice before attempting live captures. Extensive instructions on snaring can be found in Grawe (1981) and Krause (1981).

Shooting

Bobcats respond to predator calls at night and can be shot. Use a red, blue, or amber lens with an 80,000- to 200,000-candlepower (lumen) spotlight to locate bobcats.

Dogs trained to track bobcats can be useful in removing problem animals. Bobcats can be shot after being treed. Bobcats may develop a time pattern in their depredations on livestock or poultry. You can lie in wait and ambush the bobcat as it comes in for the kill. Rifles of .22 centerfire or larger, or shotguns with 1 1/4 ounces (35 g) or more of No. 2 or larger shot are recommended, since bobcats are rather large and require considerable killing power.

Place grass or brush on both sides of snare and guide to break up outline.

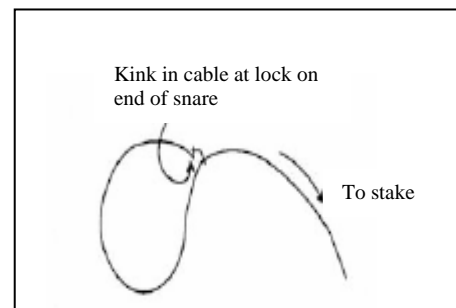
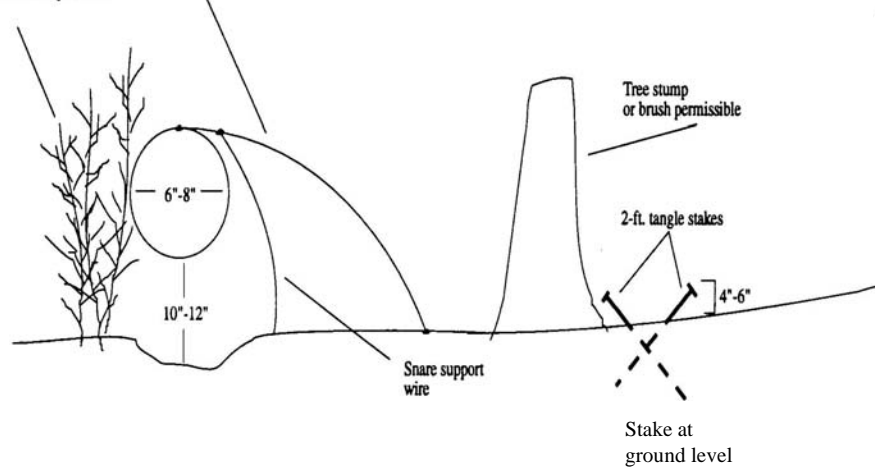


Fig. 8. Kill snare with washer lock.

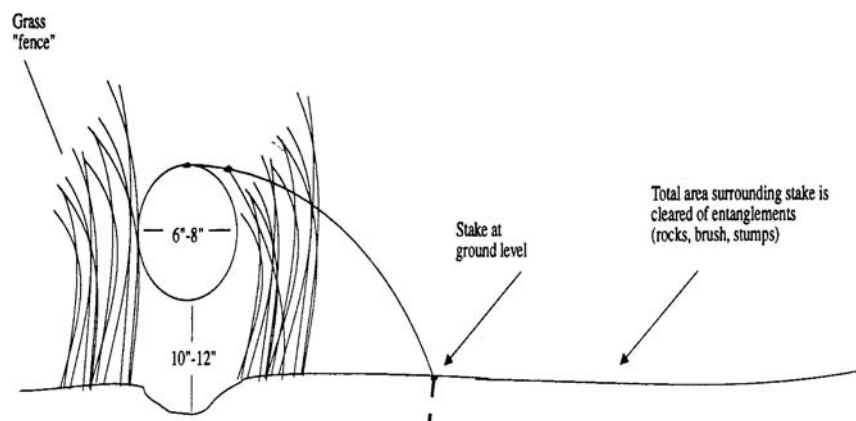
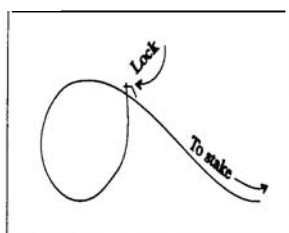


Fig. 9. Live snare with washer lock.

Economics of Damage and Control

Damage by bobcats is rather uncommon and statistics related to this damage are not well developed. In western states where data have been obtained, losses of sheep and goats have comprised less than 10% of all predation losses. Typical complaints of bobcat predation involve house cats and poultry allowed to roam at will in mountain subdivisions and ranches. Bobcats are taken by trappers and by hunters using hounds. The pelts are used for coats, trim, and accessories, the spotted belly fur being most valuable. Bobcat pelts are used for wall decorations and rugs. In recent years, North American bobcat harvests have produced about 25,000 pelts valued at \$2.5 million annually. Aesthetically, the bobcat is a highly regarded carnivore. To many people the bobcat represents the essence of wildness in any habitat it occupies.

Acknowledgments

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Figure 1 from Schwartz and Schwartz (1981).

Figure 2 by Sheri Bordeaux.

Figures 6, 8 and 9 by Denny Hogeland, adapted by Sheri Bordeaux.

Figure 7 adapted from M. L. Boddicker, 1980.

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